

The Nation.

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The Week.

In spite of Postmaster-General Payne's ready assurance that thirty-five of the forty pages of Mr. Seymour W. Tulloch's charges against the Post-Office Department are "hot air," the extracts published by the press on Monday afford extremely interesting reading. Mr. Perry Heath is not the only political freebooter who figures in Mr. Tulloch's charges. Senator Platt and his bonding company pass across the stage, but only for a moment. That famous breeding-place of great men, Muncie, Ind., furnishes the background for one scene, and one of the leading actors, Mr. Oliver H. Smith. This gentleman, like his townsman, Mr. Neely of Cuban prison fame, was evidently a man of genius, for he was called upon to fill two positions at once. Both were laborers' places, with \$2 a day for "carefare and additional expenses." Evidently Mr. Smith was a high-class workman like Mr. Edgar S. Maclay of the Brooklyn navy-yard. Then we have the familiar charwomen who figure in every spoilsman's drama. Neither of them is to know of the existence of the other, and neither is to do any work. A "complimentary" roll of those who likewise draw pay and do nothing is a very stimulating episode, and may go far to explain why the Post-Office Department never can make both ends meet. But the *dramatis personæ* of Mr. Tulloch's setting of the interior of the Washington Post-Office do not end here. There is the familiar Porto Rican or Cuban postmaster, a highly civilizing and entertaining figure, but a trifle short in his accounts. In place of the usual populace there are travelling inspectors of military post-offices, almost all with grips marked Ohio or Indiana, drawing good salaries, and living on the fat of the land. Finally, there is the fake manufacturing concern; as familiar in our Government scandals as fake gold mines in Bowery melodramas. The final touch is an auditor's statement, "Look here now, this is a new [McKinley] Administration, and a new crowd, and we intend to make our own precedents." Mr. Tulloch published his play without "authority" and without copyright.

According to a telegram in the *Times*, the purpose of our international silver commission, consisting of H. H. Hanna, Charles A. Conant, and Prof. J. W. Jenks, who sail for Europe this week, is merely "to learn whether there is any way in which the great Powers of the world can come together in some plan to steady the rates of exchange between

gold and silver-using countries." This is a laudable curiosity, although somewhat belated in the world's monetary history, when we consider the several attempts to satisfy it during the latter part of the nineteenth century. Very likely the Powers which are to be newly interrogated will retort the question on its askers, in which event the latter should be prepared to give a categorical answer. Meanwhile it is reassuring to know that our Commission has done nothing, and expects to do nothing, which will affect the monetary system of this or any other country, so far as the integrity of the gold standard is concerned. A difficulty presents itself to the Commission, however, as to the methods, if any, by which the great Governments might give to the commodity silver a stable value when coined into money. This question was debated at some length in the Brussels Monetary Conference, and it was deemed necessary by the delegates to take into consideration the output of the mines as well as the utilization of the product. So the question was bluntly put to the representatives of the silver-producing countries whether any means could be devised to limit the output. When a negative answer was returned, the project of regulating the purchase of the metal by international action was abandoned.

Ex-Secretary Gage has written a letter to the President of the Texas Bankers' Association, in response to an inquiry of the latter: "Is the money supply of the United States sufficient?" It is Mr. Gage's opinion that, although the money supply of the United States can be reinforced to any extent from the gold resources of the world, there is a deficiency in the credit currency. He shows that the supply of checks, drafts, and bills of exchange is limited only by the amount of business transacted, which creates its own medium of exchange for the larger transactions and leaves nothing to be desired; but for the smaller transactions, remote from banking facilities, there is a deficiency which should be supplied by the banks on the same principles as those governing the issue of banknotes in France, Germany, Scotland, Canada, and other civilized countries. Mr. Gage holds that the protection of the note holder against loss may be made entirely adequate without bond security lodged in the Treasury; that there need be no dangerous expansion under such a system; that such a currency would go far toward relieving the tension in monetary circles during the crop-moving season; that it would tend to steady the rates of interest for money, and that it would be in the interest especially of the agricultural classes, affording them an adequate sup-

ply of a safe circulating medium on terms more favorable than they can otherwise enjoy.

The National Business League, whose headquarters are at Chicago, have reopened their campaign for the reform of the consular service, and have begun to distribute copies of the Lodge bill, together with arguments for its passage. The bill contemplates a complete change in the system of selecting and promoting foreign consuls and their assistants. It abolishes Congressional patronage completely, and puts this branch of the public service under the merit system. It exacts as conditions of appointment a general knowledge of the trade conditions, resources, and requirements of this country, as well as of the country to which the appointee is accredited, and ability to speak either French, German, or Spanish, as well as good English. The aim of the measure is to make fitness for the particular duties of the office—that is, ability to promote the manufacturing and commercial interests of the United States—the sole test and standard of qualifications for appointment and promotion. The bill was voted down with derision in the last Congress, but it will "come up smiling" in the next one, and it will continue to come up till it is enacted into law. It has a much stronger supporting force than the Civil Service law had twenty years ago, consisting not only of "theorists," but of business men of both political parties, whose trade with foreign countries depends largely and increasingly on the intelligence and efficiency of the men holding positions in consular service. It is gratifying to perceive that these men are not in the least daunted by their defeat in their earliest battles with the spoils politicians.

President Roosevelt is very fond of dealing with the "hard fact." Ideals are all very well, but what is the use of dashing yourself against the reality? But what is the real and what the fanciful? For example, at the dedication of the naval monument in San Francisco on Thursday, Mr. Roosevelt said that the victory of Manila had "opened the Pacific Ocean to American commerce." This, therefore, is one of the official "facts as they are." But, unhappily, it is also one of the statistical facts as they are not. We will not burden our readers with the figures. They are in the Government tables. Suffice it to say that our Philippine exports are less than one-half of one per cent. of the total, and that they have not increased by anything like the amount of the new foreign trade which has come to us since 1898, and with which "the thunder of Dewey's guns"

had nothing whatever to do. If the President had been intent on the real commercial fact, as related to the acquisition and cost of the Philippines, he would have come to a conclusion nearer that of a cynical English economist, who, asked what was the chief lesson of the Boer war, replied, "The chief lesson is that war is an industry which does not pay."

Some one has said that, with the extension of modern means of communication, the whole American people are dancing at the end of wires, one ring from the centre setting all their nerves to jangling simultaneously from Broadway to the last dusty corner of the Western farming States. The fling finds its mark, if at all, in the quality of the nerves; certainly not in their close connection, for the welding together of the intelligence of the world has been the great achievement of the past fifty years. Perhaps our most remarkable development in this line during the past decade has been the rural delivery system. A recent press dispatch stating that the establishing of these postal routes must be discontinued till the next fiscal year for lack of funds, calls attention to the marvellous growth of this institution. Started in 1896, it has advanced in almost geometrical progression. There were 1,276 routes in 1900, 4,301 in 1901, and 8,466 in 1902. The report from Washington states that, within two years, at the present rate of increase, 38,000 routes, covering the whole country, will be in operation. As a civilizing agency—in the extension of trade, the promotion of reading (especially of current literature), the vivifying of the dead reaches of country existence—there have been few movements of recent years, certainly none under Government control, that have approached this.

The employer—when most a worm—will turn. That is the salutary lesson for organized labor taught by the events which crowd the news from day to day. In this city the employing builders have had to federate against federated unions, as a necessary measure of self-defence. There is a limit to the concessions which can be made; wages cannot indefinitely go up; hours cannot be cut down without end; owners have a few rights still; managers must be allowed some voice in the management. In other words, the trades unions have at last provoked, by their mounting arrogance of dictation, an assertion of common right and common manhood on the part of employers. Nothing but their desire to avoid friction, and their undoubted willingness to share, as they have shared, the profits of these prosperous years with their men, have prevented such a resolute stand from being taken long ago. It is a sharp and wholesome reminder. Wages and hours of labor remain, what they have always been, a matter for adjustment between

workmen and employers, of give and take. But it was high time the unions were given plainly to understand that they cannot go on forever giving nothing and taking everything.

In Bridgeport, Conn., the question is whether the city shall be run by a "labor" Mayor or directly by the labor unions, without the intervention of superfluous officials. When the Mayor tried to quell a strikers' riot on Sunday, a blow on the head promptly reminded him that he should respect his betters. The dogma to which the Mayor of Bridgeport and all the rest of us must subscribe was promulgated in this city the same day by Delegate Fitzgerald of the Reliance Labor Club. The topic under discussion was whether to stand by the newly formed union of rockmen and excavators, which has struck in defiance of the Central Federated Union. Delegate Fitzgerald argued: "Right or wrong, this union ought to be supported. When a union is in its infancy it is right at all times." The glaring insufficiency of this statement was at once apparent to another delegate, deeply versed in the theory of implied doctrines. He leaped at once to the logical conclusion that unions are right not merely in their infancy, but always. It must be confessed, however, that the dogma of union infallibility, like that of papal infallibility, presents some difficulties. In this city we have the spectacle of the Central Federated Union and the Rockmen's and Excavators' Union squarely opposed to each other—and both right; and the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners and the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners fighting each other to the death—and both right. This is an opportune moment for such a subtle casuist as Delegate Fitzgerald to write a 'Harmony and Exposition of the Labor Gospels.'

A couple of years ago a Republican State Convention in Pennsylvania devoted the larger part of its platform to denunciation of the press. This was the party's answer to an indictment for corruption, the truth of which it could not gainsay. Gov. Pennypacker's inaugural address echoed the sentiments expressed by the State Convention, in much better language, it is true, but with the same note of exasperation at public criticism of men in high official place. All this clearly foreshadowed the new libel law which the Governor has just signed. The spirit in which it was passed, and the temper of the Governor in signing it as expressed in a long, pompous, and fatuous memorandum, fully warrant the charge made by the leading newspapers of the State, that this is an attempt to gag the press in order that known corruptionists may ply their trade with less interruption. The bill

provides that civil actions may be brought against newspapers for negligence "in the ascertainment of facts and in making publications affecting the character, reputation, or business of citizens"; and that, when such negligence is proved, compensatory damages may be recovered, together with punitive damages where the matter is libelous and has been given special prominence by means of cartoons or display type. The act also requires newspapers to print at the head of their editorial page the names of their owners, managing editors, etc., under a maximum penalty of \$1,000.

Part of this is little more than codification of existing law, but the Governor, in his memorandum, goes much further. Describing the conditions which he thinks ought to be dealt with, he says: "Bishops, too, hurry into print without investigation, and with only such information as comes from muddy sources, to express their disregard for those whom the people have entrusted with authority." A Tammany executive, gifted with Gov. Pennypacker's power of expression, would doubtless have said as much when Bishop Potter sounded his note of alarm against corruption in this city two years ago. Describing a cartoon in which he himself is depicted as in danger of being overturned by a free press, the Governor declares: "In England, a century ago, the offender would have been drawn and quartered and his head stuck upon a pole without the gates." He does not say that he desires this now, but the idea is evidently no more offensive to him than the cartoon. The Philadelphia Press, which, despite its former anti-Quay sentiments, supported Gov. Pennypacker during his canvass and has regularly praised him since, describes the memorandum as "unspeakably shallow, silly, and wrongheaded." In its more serious light, his approval of the bill and his memorandum constitute one more attempt on his part to shield, by his abilities and reputation, men who are known to be the worst of public plunderers.

It could have been only a compelling sense of duty to the legal profession and to the public which led the Bar Association last week to adopt a resolution reflecting upon one of the most prominent judges in this city. His acceptance of a position in a private corporation while still on the bench, has been the subject of much disturbed comment among scrupulous lawyers. They have felt that his action, while violating no statute, did infringe upon that delicate sense of propriety which is never more admirable than when seen in a judge. The Bar Association now takes this view. It votes that such a mixing up of

judicial and money-making activities is "incompatible with that degree of dignity and independence of the judiciary which this Association is striving to promote." We might be even more emphatic. Quite aside from professional ethics, the need of absolutely incorruptible and absolutely unsuspected judges was never so great as now. They have to decide cases where not only immense money stakes, but wild social passions are involved. The vast issues affecting great corporations are by far the most important matters now coming before the courts. If their decisions are to be accepted as the awful voice of the law, and to be submitted to without questioning, the judges who render them must be known to be men stayed by no private interest. Otherwise, the strain upon our law-abiding tradition will be too severe, and the respect for an unbought judiciary—which is one of our few remaining bulwarks against sudden popular manias—will be swept away.

Gradually the ghastly details of the massacre of the Jews at Kishenev are finding their way into print. They recall the Bulgarian atrocities and the Armenian massacres by which alone their horrible items are paralleled. The offenders in this instance are nominally Christians of an old civilization, whose sole excuse for their inhuman atrocities is a difference in religion, combined with a racial prejudice. Well may the London *Jewish Chronicle* call upon Christian Europe to denounce this outrage. There is no pen so halting but that it should protest against such savagery, no voice so feeble but it should make an outcry. As far as the nations are concerned, no other action is possible than that of individuals and the press. It is no Bulgaria with which the world has to deal, and there is no Gladstone to make the world ring with his matchless indignation. As for ourselves, it may well be asked whether our hands, so recently bloodstained in the Philippines, and so constantly befouled by the lynchings of the South and West, will permit us to enter as strong a protest as should come from a land of liberty and of free speech. But it is gratifying to note that American charity is already coming to the relief of the survivors of this carnival of blood.

The persons who are urging Secretary Hay to file a protest with the Government of Russia against the barbarities practised on the Jews at Kishenev, should take notice of a debate in the Italian Chamber of Deputies on May 7, in reference to the lynching of two Italian citizens at Erwin, Miss., in July, 1901. The Under Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Signor Baccelli, was asked what had been the outcome of the representations made by Italy in reference to that

affair. Signor Baccelli replied that, notwithstanding the energetic measures taken by the diplomatic and consular agents of Italy, no conviction of the guilty parties had been obtained. He said that the United States Congress had voted the sum of five thousand dollars for the next of kin of the victims, but that the Italian Government would not accept blood money as a satisfaction, although it could not prevent the relatives of the victims from receiving it. He added that the late President McKinley and President Roosevelt strongly condemned lynchings, and that bills had been introduced in Congress for the trial by the Federal courts of such offenders against foreigners, but that the bills had not been passed. In short, the matter stood just where it was in 1901, when the crimes were committed. Some statistical information was contributed, showing that, besides Europeans, about 150 American citizens are lynched every year. This fact might be taken as presumptive evidence that we are not moved by prejudice against foreigners, and that we mete out equal injustice to all, but Signor Baccelli did not dwell upon that feature of the case. He hoped that the American nation would realize that lynching is a custom which is not a credit to an advanced stage of civilization, such as the United States has reached, and that this country would mend its ways.

The opinion of the Marquis of Granby concerning certain English statesmen who would repeal the English bread tax, was expressed in terms which bring to the minds of the older generation the spicy literature of the anti-Corn Law campaign. The Marquis telegraphed to the Leicestershire Chamber of Agriculture, saying: "I should wish meeting to know my strong disappointment at abolition of corn tax, which abolition, if only on ground that tax enlarged basis of taxation, seems to me to approach criminal idiocy." The Marquis, it should be added, was for several years private secretary to Lord Salisbury, whose party is still in power. Mr. Balfour is at present the reigning "criminal idiot." On Friday he received a large deputation of the agricultural interest who came to protest against a repeal of the tax on imported corn, but he declined to entertain their proposal, saying that the tax was never intended to be a protective measure, and that the Government could not make it such by mere silence and non-action. If protection was to be restored as a British policy, it must be done in a broad and open way after debate, and not in a clandestine manner.

Emperor William has once more placed himself upon the side of the military reactionaries within his dominions by accepting the resignation from the army

of his brother-in-law, the hereditary Prince of Saxe-Meiningen. The Prince's offence consisted in publishing a remarkably humane order to his army corps, encouraging the private soldier to report ill-treatment on the part of officers, as of non-commissioned officers, guilty of cruelty; and stating that it was not the Emperor's wish that men should suffer in silence. This his Majesty now disavows, bowing before the god Discipline, who might, he thinks, be offended by such a procedure on the part of the men in the ranks. Needless to say, this will be as serious a blow at those who would reform the evils of Prussian militarism as is the Emperor's encouragement of duelling. That there is a terrible amount of persecution in the army admits of no dispute. The powers of an officer are almost absolute. To complain is to subject one's self to insult and additional punishment. In most cases, moreover, brutal non-commissioned officers are upheld by their commissioned superiors—always for the sake of discipline. Because of his wife's eccentricities, the Prince of Saxe-Meiningen has not been in favor at court or with the people. But his retirement and his evident desire to right the wrongs of the oppressed soldiers are certain to give him a novel and, it is to be hoped, lasting popularity.

In 1893 Germany reduced the term of military service for the infantry from three to two years, and the same reduction has been recently made by France and is now contemplated by Austria. Even the German Emperor, with all his love of military pomp and power, admits that the change has not diminished the efficiency of the army in the slightest degree. In fact, the discipline of the soldiers has been thereby greatly improved, the percentage of punishments for insubordination in the infantry having decreased during the last ten years nearly one-half (nine to five), whereas in the cavalry and mounted artillery, who continue to serve three years, there is no perceptible improvement in this respect. Most remarkable, however, is the impulse which the adoption of the two years' military service has given to the development of German industrialism. It is now generally conceded that under the three years' system Germany would never have attained her present prominent position as a manufacturing and commercial nation. It is the recognition of this fact which has led other European Powers to introduce the same reform. The experiment was at first regarded by conservative military authorities as extremely hazardous, and for this reason was to be tried for ten years, *i. e.*, till March 31, 1904; but it has been so successful in every respect that there is now no thought of returning to the old system, but rather a desire to apply the two years' term of service to the entire army.

PROGRESS OF CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

Notwithstanding the postal scandals and other discouragements, the tone of the annual meeting of the New York Civil-Service Reform Association, held last week, was distinctly one of hope and good cheer. Primarily, this was due to conditions in the Federal service. But in its annual review of the progress of the cause, the Association was able to report changes for the better in this State and this city. Six months ago the local situation was very discouraging. Although waited upon by a committee of the Association, to which he promised certain changes in the Municipal Civil-Service Commission, Mayor Low continued in office the seven Commissioners under whose management there had arisen endless delays and embarrassments, hampering the entire reform Administration. This year the Association reports that the work of the local Commission has shown a marked improvement, although little of a constructive character has been accomplished. To have such heads of departments as Dr. Lederle and Gen. Greene on hand to testify to their approval of the principles of the Association was also a gratifying sign of the times.

As far as the State is concerned, the Association found occasion for both praise and blame. Gov. Odell it thinks open to criticism for having signed certain bills of a year ago, and for having too frequently secured the approval of the State Commission in exempting offices from competitive examinations. It must be remembered, however, that many of the exemptions since Gov. Odell's first election have been due to decisions by the courts. If we are correctly informed, he himself is of the opinion that, this considered, his Administration compares very favorably with previous ones in the matter of exemptions. In other respects, the Association states, Gov. Odell has strictly upheld the law, and has shown a readiness to veto bills injurious to the merit system.

But it is in the Federal service that advocates of the merit system the country over find the greatest cause for encouragement, thanks largely to President Roosevelt. Since this graduate of the Civil Service Commission took the Presidential chair, the entire tone of the service itself has been wonderfully improved, until the contrast with its status under the preceding Administration is striking. One of the signs of this is the changed attitude of Congress. For perhaps the first time, the voting of the Civil Service Commission's appropriation was unaccompanied by any of the time-honored attacks upon the "snivel service," in which the Grosvenors have so long delighted. Moreover, Congress doubled the Commission's appropriation, thereby making possible the employment

of the clerks it needs, and whom it has hitherto had to borrow from several departments.

Coming to the details of President Roosevelt's work for the civil service, in reorganizing the Commission he has thus far appointed two pronounced advocates of the merit system, Messrs. Foulke and Garfield. The result has been to obtain what is probably the most satisfactory Commission that has thus far held office. He early served notice that the law must be respected and obeyed, by removing prominent officials who had violated it, by accepting forced resignations from some and by declining to reappoint still others. Among these may be mentioned the Surveyor-General of Colorado, the Collectors at El Paso and Louisville, and the Postmaster in Philadelphia. Early in his term President Roosevelt included within the rules 11,800 rural free-delivery postal employees, and 1,800 field employees of the War Department who were excluded by the order of May, 1899. He has established a registration system for the selection of laborers in the Washington departments, and has more recently extended this to the larger outside offices. Moreover, Mr. Roosevelt defeated the plan to foist upon the permanent civil service the great body of temporarily appointed census clerks, and brought about the establishment by Congress of a permanent classified Census Bureau on the same footing as other departments of the Government. The President has also insisted "that not an office should be filled in the Philippines or Porto Rico with any regard to the man's partisan affiliation or service, with any regard to the political, social, or personal influence which he may have at his command."

But this is not all. Soon after taking office, Mr. Roosevelt approved amendments to the rules which restored some of the safeguards removed by President McKinley on May 1, 1899, and only two months ago signed a complete revision of the rules which will establish a general system far in advance of the old one. It does away with the many objectionable features of Mr. McKinley's amendments, and restores many offices to the competitive class. This in itself constitutes one of the greatest steps forward in the history of the movement. Fortunately for the country, Mr. Roosevelt's pledge to follow his predecessor's policy plainly did not include the civil service. In the consular and diplomatic services Mr. Roosevelt has also done well, on the whole, and has readily promoted or transferred to better positions men who have been faithful in less important offices.

It must not be overlooked that, in spite of this and his emphasis upon the merit system in many public utterances, the President has been weak enough to make some very bad appointments. Of

these we shall mention merely Byrne of Delaware as Federal District Attorney and "Joe" Murray, Mr. Roosevelt's old "ward heeler" in Assembly days, fastened upon the local Immigration Bureau. The Association also denounced afresh the appointment of James S. Clarkson, and made serious charges against him of absence from his office and of bad selections of subordinates.

COMMISSIONER IDE ON THE PHILIPPINES.

The most interesting statement as to the methods and aims of the Philippine Commission which has appeared since Gov. Taft testified at the time of Senator Lodge's mock inquiry into the affairs of the islands, was made last week by Judge Ide of the Philippine Commission, in an interview published in the *Evening Post*. That the Commissioner should be extremely optimistic was, of course, to be expected. He speaks warmly of the growth of the educational work undertaken in the islands, disregarding President Schurman's scathing criticism of the attempt to force a foreign language upon an alien people. He is able, moreover, to report that the hunting down of *ladrones* has gone on swimmingly since the duty of ferreting them out has been transferred from the American troops to the Philippine scouts and constabulary. The experiment of setting one race of Filipinos—the native troops are nearly all Maccabebes—against another seems, therefore, to be successful. Judge Ide, moreover, prides himself upon the establishment of courts, comparing "favorably in their general character with those of any State in this Union," and thinks this the greatest achievement of the American Government. He makes the usual plea for the postponement of any action looking to the freeing of the slaves under our flag, or to the stamping out of polygamy among our Mohammedan subjects, although he admits that it is desirable to end slavery as soon as possible. And he is able to state in an interesting way the relative unimportance of the Moro questions as compared with those which concern the Christian Filipino. Upon the financial needs of the people, their sufferings because of the war, the prostration of their agriculture and commerce, the interview barely touches, save to plead for an amelioration of the injustice which compels Philippine products to pay 75 per cent. of the Dingley tariff rates. Best of all, Judge Ide believes in "developing the Filipino rather than the Philippine Islands," and praises the Government employment of many Filipinos in pursuance of this policy.

The striking feature of the interview is, after all, the tribute paid throughout to the character of the Filipino people. They have, Judge Ide says, no fondness

for manual labor, but they are ambitious to enter every trade or profession of the higher grade. They are extraordinarily temperate, far more so than our own people, and have, fortunately enough, not imitated our whiskey-drinking habits. They respect and approve of our American women, while not understanding our social conventions. The individual Filipino makes an excellent citizen, being peaceful, law-abiding, mindful of his own affairs, and considerate of others. The former members of Aguinaldo's Cabinet who now hold office are giving valuable aid. Such success as the Commission has obtained is more probably attributable, Judge Ide thinks, to the policy of utilizing natives than to any other cause. Aglipay, the leader of the new Filipino Church, is reported to be astute and bright, with very considerable executive ability. Finally, Aguinaldo's preëminence is largely due to his remarkable organizing faculty. For a race that has been condemned, by men like Gen. Chaffee, to Anglo-Saxon tutelage for hundreds of years, and which has variously been denounced as barbaric and savage, this is certainly a very remarkable showing.

When Commissioner Ide turns to the future and the question of independence, he declares the time not ripe for such discussions, believing that mere agitation will lead to the formation of "unlawful" conspiracies to encompass that end. But this seems to us not inconsistent with the view that the love of liberty and the desire for nationality are so strong that the mere mention of the subject is likely to inflame the minds of the thoughtful Filipinos, much as Patrick Henry's words fell upon fertile soil throughout the colonies. Judge Ide's counsel of silence and delay we think the counsel of cowardice and compromise. Whatever the effect upon the Filipinos, the United States cannot afford to be in a doubtful attitude about this matter. It owes it to itself and to every ideal and tradition it possesses to announce to all the world its intention to help the Filipinos to a national existence as it has helped Cuba to independence.

The time has come for the nation to search its heart on this question. Are the Filipinos to be mere vassals and subjects, or citizens of the republic, or citizens of their own republic? Are we exploiting the islands for our own profit, or for the benefit of its rightful owners? If the former, it must not be forgotten that, as John Stuart Mill put it, to found a great empire for the sole purpose of raising up a people of consumers, is a project fit not for a nation of shopkeepers, but for a nation whose government is influenced by shopkeepers. To deny the Filipinos light as to their future status now is to repeat the folly of 1898, when Aguinaldo and his officials had no information as to our intentions until the

announcement of the Treaty of Paris. Frankness now, with the promise of independence, might act, whatever Judge Ide may say, as a stimulus to good behavior and rapid progress in the art of self-government. When the instinct of nationality is so powerful, it is idle to suppose that partial freedom will seem anything else to the Filipino than the "privilege and prerogative and not liberty" which Burke termed it in one of his appeals for the American colonies.

Commissioner Ide's interview is also unusual in that it is free from any notes of vulgar spoliation or exploitation such as have been heard so often in the debates at Washington. He takes strong ground in defence of the Filipinos against the Chinese. But the very watchword of the "Philippines for the Filipinos," which is in his mind in discussing this question, is what we need to apply ourselves, and, Judge Ide to the contrary, we cannot but believe that the word which the Filipinos should hear oftenest from American lips is independence. There are some words which, spoken in connection with the lives of peoples, have an irresistibly tonic and stimulating effect, and have done more to advance civilization than all the exchanges of the mart. History has yet to record an instance where the spirit of liberty, with a free discussion of its attainment, has done aught but ennoble the people who breathed it.

ABANDONING PROHIBITION.

In New Hampshire's enactment of a local-option license law (under which elections occurred on May 12), following so closely on that of Vermont, may be seen the concluding confession of the error and failure of State prohibition, as a means of dealing with the liquor problem. Of the seventeen States that adopted the idea when it was new and attractive, all but three have now abandoned it. They are Maine, Kansas, and North Dakota, in each of which it is by tacit consent treated as a farce; and the spasm of enforcement just now seen in Maine will have for its probable result, if not its purpose, the repeal of the law.

Next to Maine, Vermont has made the longest trial of prohibition, enacting it just fifty years before the late repeal. New Hampshire enacted it with regard to distilled liquors in 1855, and extended it to beer in 1878. Maine was two years earlier than Vermont, leading off with the experiment in 1851, whence the agitation spread to every State of the North, and left its record on the statute-books of most of them. It was the result of the great moral upheaval of the second quarter of the last century against intemperance, and of the general sweep of "isms" humanitarian which so characterized that era. That it has had its place of usefulness, educational and disciplinary, in our social evolution, is

not to be denied. To realize this we have only to compare present conditions of sobriety with those of three generations ago, when liquor drinking was almost universal, and when, according to a report of a citizens' committee in New York in 1817, one inhabitant in eight in this city was living on charity, while of this pauperism seven-eighths was due to intemperance. In the same year a report of the Mayor showed 2,500 grog-shops in a population of about 115,000, or above one to each fifty people.

Prohibition was the first crude effort of an aroused morality to deal with a most difficult and complex problem, but it has now been replaced almost everywhere by local option, constantly growing more carefully restrictive and stringent in supervision, aiming, wherever practicable, to draw the line between that part of the traffic which public safety requires to be prohibited, and that other part which, if evil at all, is too remotely and indirectly so to warrant an interference with individual rights. The fundamental error of State prohibition has been that, for the sake of getting rid of a part, it has sought to sweep away the whole, and yet in so inconsistent a way, by forbidding the sale while admitting the right to purchase liquor, that failure was inevitable under the moral law. In all the history of mankind the only prohibition that has ever come within sight of success is that of Mohammed and Buddhism, which applies to buying and selling alike. "Thou shalt not buy or sell, give or receive any intoxicating drink," is the fifth commandment of the Buddhist Decalogue.

The local-option legislation of the different States is of all degrees of merit, but, generally speaking, it shows a steady and hopeful progress towards a practicable basis. The new Vermont law may fairly be said to reach high-water mark, thus far, in this respect. It goes further in the direction of home rule and home responsibility than has ever been done before. All license fees go, one-half to the local treasury and one-half to the construction of permanent highways throughout the State. More important still, so do all penalties for violation of the law. These are very heavy — from one hundred dollars to three hundred dollars for each offence. Thus a motive, and a powerful one in rural communities, is afforded to every taxpayer to see that the law is obeyed — not only that there shall be no unlicensed selling, but that there shall be no violation of the restrictions of the law. Then, to make the motive operative for good, every policeman, sheriff, and constable must "report forthwith," under penalty of \$200 fine, to the License Board—which has charge of the business in each town and city—"any violation brought to his attention." Moreover, he must periodically appear

before the Board, and on oath, under the full penalties of perjury, state in detail "whether he has observed any indications or received any information tending to show" any violations. The License Board must then, under penalty of \$500, follow up such information, investigate, and prosecute every complaint, if well founded, and if not, report at the annual meeting the reasons for non-action in every case. The Madisonian recipe for law-making, "to mark with precision the duty to be done and to diminish the discretion that is liable to be abused," seems here to be well followed.

Every licensee is placed under three thousand-dollar bonds, not from surety companies, but from two townsmen whose liability extends to any action for civil damage; and to further guard against ownership of the retail traffic by breweries or distilleries, it is provided that no person "directly or indirectly engaged in the liquor traffic" shall be accepted on any bond, nor shall one person be accepted on more than one bond.

With all these and other safeguards to prevent any but reputable men getting licenses—especially necessary in a State where the long reign of prohibition has tended to drive the traffic to men of the blackleg class—there is a further limitation of the number of licenses by population. They are one for each thousand, which is only sufficient for the hotels and bona-fide restaurants and an occasional drug store for trade in bottled goods, not leaving room for a dozen mere saloons in the whole State. For towns that vote "no license," there is provision for a purely medicinal drug-store license, to sell only on a physician's prescription, with restrictions somewhat like those of the Kansas law, but far more effective and assured of proof in case of violation. For this, the penalty is business ruin for the offending druggist.

These are only a few of the interesting and instructive features of the new Vermont law. In Massachusetts, whose law has hitherto been recognized as the best-devised and best-guarded of the local-option statutes, all available data indicate an average improvement of 25 to 33 per cent. as compared with State prohibition. But the Vermont law represents such an advance over that of Massachusetts that we may expect the rum evil to be reduced by a full half from what it has been under nominal "prohibition."

ENGLISH PARTY PROSPECTS.

Mr. Chamberlain's speech at Birmingham, if not a direct contradiction of Mr. Balfour's, is an evident bid for the Premiership based upon a change of British policy in reference to free trade. Although Mr. Balfour had not denied that some changes might be advisable, he indicated the purpose of the Government to proceed with deliberation and not to run ahead of public opinion. Now his Colonial Secretary clears the

fence at one bound, assuming evidently that he is the real leader, and that the party will follow him. For this exploit he chooses a time when the Balfour Ministry is weakened by serious defections, and when Mr. Balfour himself shows signs of weariness. Mr. Chamberlain's speech may prove captivating to the masses who do not see very far below the surface. He deals in stock phrases. He talks of binding the empire together and repelling foreign dictation and "cultivating the trade of our own people," but he does not descend to details. A year or more ago, Sir Robert Giffen invited attention to the details of the proposed new policy in reference to colonial trade, and riddled it so completely that nobody has even attempted to answer him. Sir Robert's summing up was, in substance, that the preferential policy was a scheme to throw away, or put in jeopardy, three hundred millions of trade in order to win thirty millions.

The political sensation caused by Mr. Chamberlain's speech on Friday is largely due to the fact that it was so timed as to hit a political crisis—or something very like one. That Mr. Balfour's Government has been on the down grade for some months is beyond question. The Conservatives themselves admit it. The evidence lies not alone in the bye-elections. These have been, however, extremely significant of the swing of the pendulum away from the Conservatives. In twelve constituencies where, in 1900, they had a total majority of 20,002 votes, in the bye-elections they have been left in a minority of 3,496. Obviously, that ratio of loss in a general election would sink the party.

Even plainer signs of the waning fortunes of the Ministry have not been lacking. There are such things as the indefinable prestige of a Cabinet and the unwritten authority of the Prime Minister, both of which have been seriously undermined during recent weeks. Mr. Balfour is not a masterful man. He has marked personal charm and an intellect at once subtle and powerful. Everybody likes him, but nobody is ready to follow him through thick and thin. His very lucidity and detachment of mind seem to unfit him for the position of party leader. He has not those rough-and-ready methods, those hot and surging convictions (or the appearance of them), which are demanded in the chief of a great political organization. Had Mr. Balfour been an imperious man like Gladstone, or a strongly haughty one like Lord Salisbury, he would never have tolerated those party revolts and that occasional insubordination of even a colleague, which the present Prime Minister has meekly suffered. The formation of a vigorous and daring Fourth Party within the Conservative ranks; the several unhappy instances of vacillation or misjudgment in foreign affairs, which can be laid to the charge of the

Government; the hostile electoral tide running against the Ministry in the bye-elections—all have combined to shake Mr. Balfour's position rudely. Now comes Mr. Chamberlain's speech.

In effect, it raises a standard of disaffection. Nothing is more likely, to be sure, than that statements or letters will presently appear showing how completely in harmony are Mr. Balfour and his formidable colleague. Chamberlain is an adept in disavowing popular impressions of his speeches or activities. But the fact remains that he has skillfully chosen his occasion to convince the country that he is the one strong man in the Cabinet who knows his own mind and never hesitates. Almost at the moment when the Prime Minister was delicately balancing the pros and cons of protective taxes, the Colonial Secretary was boldly striking out for himself and his party a new policy, shrewdly designed to take advantage of Conservative discontents, and, at the same time, to fall in with the popular tendency to do and sacrifice everything for great Imperial interests. The average sense of England will arrive at the conclusion, no matter what Mr. Chamberlain's disclaimers may be, that he has offered himself as the real man with the real policy for the hour.

Mr. Balfour will not be the first Premier to suffer from having too powerful a subordinate. If a Cabinet is not to be made up wholly of what have been called "ornamental phantoms," this danger must always exist. Palmerston and Gladstone were never comfortable Cabinet-mates. The latter said that he seldom went to a Cabinet meeting without taking the precaution to carry his resignation in his pocket. On the other hand, Palmerston declared that he had a whole drawerful of Gladstone's resignations, which had been either refused or recalled. But Mr. Balfour is too winning and hesitant a personality to assert himself as "Old Pam" did. His health is not robust enough, and his taste is too fastidious, for the arduous labors of his office. Nature seems to have designed him for the House of Lords. Exchanging persiflage there with Lord Rosebery would seem to be a more congenial rôle for him than to be having to deal with the sappers and miners in his own Cabinet. At any rate, more and more people in England will now expect him, sooner or later, to make for that harbor of refuge, leaving the leadership of the Conservative party to that whilom Radical, Joseph Chamberlain.

That the latter is an exceedingly adroit and ready man, dowered with great political courage, too, or the plausible semblance of it, no fair-minded student of his career can deny. But his course has justified, in many respects, Mr. Gladstone's early characterization of him as the nearest approach to an American politician yet produced by English

public life. What he meant was doubtless that keen instinct for the feelings and desires of a democracy, with a capacity for evolving large and showy programmes, which Mr. Chamberlain has so often displayed. For a man of his type, it matters little that his plans fail when the pinch of legislation comes. He always has another just as good. Mr. Chamberlain's scheme of Old Age Pensions came to nothing; his Colonial Conference was a practical failure; and there is no sound reason for believing that his project of an all-British preferential trade can be enacted into law. But that is not necessary for his purposes. He has appealed to the national imagination in a very striking way. He has caught the fancy of the hour. The result will be, almost certainly, to make him chief of the Conservative party. That, as such, or even as Prime Minister of England, he will succeed in reversing the historical fiscal policy of England, we do not believe. The facts, the laws of trade, will be too strong even for his alert and flexible understanding and wonderful political skill.

THE RIGHTS OF DIALECTS.

There is a suggestion of pathetic irony in the publication of a project for the official sanctioning and preserving of local dialects in France, at the very time when the converging forces of centralization in that country seem to be culminating in a supreme effort. In a pamphlet entitled '*Pétition pour les Langues Provinciales*,' which revives pretensions originally advanced in 1870 but silenced by the outbreak of the Franco-German war, Prof. Henri Gaidoz contends that such dialects, while forming as it were a centre of accretion for provincial or cantonal sentiment, are nevertheless compatible with homogeneity of national life; administrative endeavors towards unification of speech may consequently be regarded as infringements on natural rights, entailing at the same time irreparable loss of material for students of popular literature, folklore, and philology. The plea is therefore urged that in such a region as Brittany, where a population of more than thirteen hundred thousand cling tenaciously to their ancient Celtic tongue, the use of Breton, if only as a vehicle of explanation, becomes all but imperative in primary schools frequented by children totally ignorant of French; and like conditions apply equally well in Provence and elsewhere. To institutions of higher learning should be entrusted the function of cultivating such rich stores of literature and philology through the work of special chairs.

It is the fatal defect of compressed argumentation of this character that all its question-begging is at once laid bare. The plausibility of Professor Gaidoz's pleadings rests in acceptance of his dis-

putable postulates, and in prudent waiving of the very points that give vitality to such discussion in any country where difference in speech involves differences of religious and political views. To treat these as negligible *questions de clocher* is to simplify the problem into blank unreality. The very cases cited in support of the central position differ so fundamentally from Brittany (for which the whole pamphlet is an undisguised contention, and naturally, as proceeding from the chair of Celtic philology), that no valid analogy exists in the appeal. Toleration, in the British Isles, of Celtic or other local dialects nowhere involves their recognition in any broad official sense. The use of them is a private family luxury similar to convenient bilingualism in the educated. In Switzerland, the existence, side by side and in refreshing amity, of French, German, and Italian depends on that historic tradition of cantonal self-government which only long experience has fused into harmony with the idea of a fully developed and coherent national life. The one instance, conspicuously unnoticed by the pleader, of the natural linguistic divisions in Italy offering some resemblance to France, stands out in strong opposition, since the unification of young Italy derives a generous share of its strength from the fact that, between the Alps and the southern coast of Sicily, the "Illustrious Vulgar Tongue" is to-day at least generally understood, even in remote hamlets, and that chiefly through the work of the newspaper and the common school. That Spain has granted to her Basque provinces the use of their own strange idiom as a political language, and that the Catalan dialect may yet be heard in the *Ayuntamiento* of Barcelona, are among the most patent signs of the truth contained in the popular Iberian saying which makes of every Spaniard a political faction in himself. The particularism of the various components of the Austrian Empire, largely the result of mutual unintelligibility, is too familiar to be dwelt on. If Professor Gaidoz had chosen to glance across the Atlantic at our immediate neighbors to the north, he would have discovered that resolute and systematic preservation of a distinct speech in a distinct province has formed one, at least, of the most constant obstacles to the development of the organic national idea which the Fathers of Confederation had in view.

It would, however, be both arbitrary and dogmatic to insist that a difference of language is alone sufficient to sunder a truly united people, or to stay a healthy growth. The case of Switzerland, already mentioned, discloses the strange phenomenon of an *entente* in certain vital respects more completely cordial between cantons divided by speech but one in faith, than between cantons using the same tongue and fol-

lowing different creeds; for the trifling inconvenience of an occasional failure to understand is no such ground of division as a radical impossibility of agreement over questions that touch all the profounder relations of the individual to the State, and of both to the Church. Belgian unity of national feeling, here described in the phrase "*une vraie nation de frères*," is for the most part undisturbed by active religious dissent; and yet the linguistic areas of French, Flemish, and Walloon remain virtually unaltered. The unfortunate element in the pleading of Professor Gaidoz consists in its urging the claims for recognition of a local dialect associated for more than a century with conditions unacceptable to the general spirit of modern France; it is needless to insist on facts of history here so obviously blinked.

RUSSIAN RIGHTS IN MANTCHURIA.

OBERLIN, May 11, 1903.

The prevailing comments upon Russia's movements in Manchuria seem largely to be based upon a misunderstanding of the facts. In the first place, the unmeasured condemnation of Russian action fails to take into account the difference in the relations between China and Russia and those with other European Powers. For three hundred years Russia has had to live next-door neighbor to China. Along a border of three thousand miles she has been compelled to keep peace with China, and to prevent her citizens from infringing on Chinese rights; whereas the other European Powers are simply interlopers, forcing themselves upon China from the outside by reason of their maritime supremacy. The whole attitude of European Powers toward China is one of supreme selfishness. None of them can claim disinterested motives for what they are doing. Nothing worse than this can be said of the motives actuating the Russian Government. But the proximity of the two countries to each other lays upon Russia special responsibilities, and subjects her to various exigencies different from any that can arise with the other European Governments in their relations to China. It is important, therefore, in this connection, briefly to review Russia's relations to China.

During the seventeenth century there was a long contest between Russia and China for the possession of the valley of the Amur. In many respects this was much like that between the French and the English for the valley of the Mississippi. This contest ended in the Treaty of Nerchinsk, in 1689, in which the Russians yielded their claims, and left China in full possession of the Amur Valley. Notwithstanding the great inconvenience to Russian interests, Russia continued to observe this treaty with remarkable fidelity for one hundred and seventy-five years. Meanwhile, overland trade with China, in proportions that are scarcely realized by the outside world, was continually kept up over the caravan route from Kalgan to Kiakhta, and over the more western route from Su-chau to Semipalatinsk.

Upon the breaking out of the Crimean

war in 1854, it became evident that all the Russian interests on the Pacific Coast were in jeopardy. It was impossible to get reinforcements into that field without the use of the Amur River, and the exigency was such that Muravieff, who was the Governor of East Siberia, obtained permission from the central Government to deal directly with China. This he did, first asking permission to go down the Amur River with the troops that he had raised in Transbaikalia, and then going down before there was time for the answer to be obtained. But there was no interference with Chinese rights. There was, however, the discovery that the Chinese were doing nothing for the development of the country, and that there were no Chinese upon the north side of the river and very few upon the south.

The next year there was the same necessity for sending fresh reinforcements down the river. This time, to secure safety, Muravieff established various Cossack colonies upon the north side to facilitate his return. The results are well known. Russia was entirely successful. The allies were ignominiously defeated upon the Pacific Coast, while the discovery of the unsettled condition of the country north of the Amur River led to a proposition from Muravieff that all that territory, together with that east of Ussuri down to the present site of Vladivostok, be ceded to Russia. One ground upon which this proposition was pressed was that, in the Treaty of Nerchinsk, the commissioners had been overawed by the presence of Chinese troops, while, as already said, the existing condition of things showed that China had no real interest in the country, so that the Russians were entitled to it by the "right of discovery" about as much as civilized countries are to their colonial possessions in general. At any rate, without bloodshed and without serious opposition, by the Treaty of Aigun, in 1858, this whole region was ceded to Russia; but the right of navigating the river was secured to Russia and China alone.

No sooner did Russia come into possession of this territory than a vast tide of immigration of Russian peasants began to set in, so that now there is in the region about half a million of Russian settlers with all the appliances of Western civilization. In the city of Blagovestchensk one will find a creditable museum, well-equipped hospitals, ample churches, and literary and musical societies comparing favorably with those in any city in the United States of less than 100,000 inhabitants. Just before I was there in the summer of 1900, a local society had rendered with great success Saint-Saëns's "Samson and Delilah."

In general it may be said that the Russians have been scrupulous in their regard for Chinese rights, and that they have in almost every way manifested an extreme desire to keep on good terms with the Chinese. For example, though by this treaty they had the right to navigate the Sungari River, penetrating Manchuria, they never exercised the right, because of the popular opposition to it. It is well to remark, also, that the statement frequently made that Russia never withdraws her foot from territory which she has once occupied is shown to be incorrect, not only by the long withdrawal from the Amur after the Treaty of Nerchinsk, but by two other

events which occurred during the latter part of the last century. One of these was her withdrawing from America on the sale of Alaska to the United States. The other instance occurred in her relations to China connected with the Russian occupation of western Turkestan. In 1871 Kuldja, one of the most flourishing Chinese provinces south of Lake Balkash, was occupied by the Russians for the purpose of putting an end to the pandemonium that existed on her borders, which the Chinese were unable to suppress. But, desiring to keep on friendly terms with China, Russia assured her, as she is now doing with reference to Manchuria, that the province would be restored as soon as the Chinese were able to take bona-fide possession of it and maintain order. After ten years, on the fulfilment of these conditions, the province was restored and Russian troops were permanently withdrawn.

Russia's present rights and duties in Manchuria cannot be understood independently of the history of the past eight years. However much Japan may have been wronged in the matter, Russia came into the possession of Port Arthur by the consent of the other European Powers, when the Germans had no scruples in seizing Kiaochow on the Shantung Peninsula, and the English Wei-hai-wei. Then, under the provisions of the Treaty of Peking, in 1895, came the permission to build the Chinese Eastern Railroad, securing a direct line from Transbaikalia to Vladivostok and a branch line from Harbin southward via Newchwang to Port Arthur. This treaty was obtained by as legitimate a method as that by which we have obtained the right to that providing for the Panama Canal. According to the provisions of the treaty, and in view of rights in the road granted to the Chinese Government, the Chinese pledged themselves to furnish one-half the military protection. With these encouragements, a company under the patronage of the Russian Government, which guaranteed their bonds, undertook the building of the road, and pushed the work along with such phenomenal rapidity that, by the close of 1900, it would have been opened for traffic but for the interruption of the Boxer revolution. Hundreds of millions of rubles had been spent upon the enterprise, and everything was moving along without friction, and without serious protest from other Governments. The Russians had implicit confidence in the good faith of the Chinese to carry out the provisions of the Treaty of Peking. The lives of the great numbers of the engineers and their families engaged in the construction of the road, and all the vast property which had been created along the line, were completely at the mercy of the Chinese. Small squads of Cossacks alternating with similar bodies of Chinese soldiers supplied all the military protection that was afforded for the road when it was approaching completion in the summer of 1900. The city of Blagovestchensk upon the Amur was completely denuded of its Russian guard—the whole body with their artillery and ammunition having been sent forward to the centre of the disturbance about Peking.

Then came the revolution which changed the entire condition of things. Without a moment's warning, the Chinese by imperial order turned against the Russians, did their utmost to kill all the foreigners

along the line of the railroad, and destroyed everything upon which they could lay their hands. They began at once and without warning to fire from the Chinese side upon the steamers plying upon the Amur River. They crossed the river and captured and destroyed such Russian villages as they were able to do; and began a formidable bombardment of the defenceless city of Blagovestchensk. On my way up the Amur River to this city, where we arrived two days after the siege began, two gayly dressed mandarins boarded our steamer, where they were put under arrest and their baggage was searched. They were found to be loaded with proclamations from the central Government for an uprising to destroy all foreigners, and were provided with plans for the capture of the city.

I wish to repeat here what I have said before, but what has failed to make the impression it ought to make, that the seeming atrocities connected with the driving out of the Chinese from the north side of the river, and especially from Blagovestchensk, immediately following these events, are to be attributed to the casualties of war that could not be provided against. The Russians had no troops in the locality for the regular protection of their interests. What was done was from the impulse of the moment, under the stress of a terror such as befalls a frontier settlement when savages suddenly break loose upon them. If they had had troops in Blagovestchensk they could have proceeded in a more regular way; but, being without troops, self-protection demanded that the Chinese, who had so suddenly transformed themselves into enemies, should all be driven over on to the other side of the river. I will not again go into particulars, but will simply reiterate that the Russians made a bona-fide attempt to give the Chinese safe passage from Blagovestchensk to the other side. The correct statements of these facts you will find, not only in my letter in your columns for September 27, 1900, but in the *London Illustrated News* for September 1, 1900, from the pen of Capt. Smith-Dorrien, a distinguished English commander, who was with me through all those harrowing events.

In this condition of things it follows, as a matter of course, that Russia must send troops into Manchuria to reclaim the railroad and carry out for herself the provisions of the treaty for securing its protection. From that time to this the preservation of order has demanded their presence. Nor can they be withdrawn with safety until China has shown herself able to preserve order and gives ample assurance for the future. The revolution of 1900 has changed the conditions, so that it may not be possible ever to get back to the former status and protect all the interests that have arisen under the operations of the treaty.

Russia's interest in the region, therefore, differs from those of all other European Powers. Japan, by reason of her contiguity, has most reason to feel aggrieved by the Russian occupation. Under the pressure of political necessity, it will not be surprising if she speedily resorts to desperate measures to regain the position which was lost when she was forced to cede Port Arthur to Russia. But the Russian position is already impregnable, and in the long run her interests are not likely to

be antagonistic to the just rights of other European Powers or of America—if, indeed, the various demands made upon China by the civilized nations can be called rights.

So far as the matter of trade is concerned, I may illustrate by my own experience. When we went out on the construction train from Port Arthur, we were drawn by a Baldwin locomotive running over rails which were made in Baltimore laid on ties shipped from Oregon. At Harbin we counted the names of fifteen American manufacturing firms that had supplied material to the railroad shops. Within a few weeks I have had a letter from one of the most prominent Russian engineers, whose hospitality I shared, saying that since the railroad was completed he had remained to build a steam grist mill, and that he desired to be put in communication with an American firm that could supply him with the needed machinery. Going farther west, at Verkhni Udinsk I met twenty-eight carloads of American machinery being transferred to boats to be taken farther into the interior. In Tashkent I found one of the largest stores devoted entirely to the sale of American machinery; while going up the Irtysh River I saw a team of camels walking briskly along with an American mowing machine behind them. The extension of Western civilization into the unsettled portions of Manchuria (which constitute two-thirds of the country) would create demands for commerce from which only our own folly or shortsightedness can debar us of our share.

Looking at the whole subject from the broad interests of humanity, one can not well wish to debar the vast Russian population which is filling up eastern Siberia from a readier access than it has had heretofore to an open port upon the Pacific. It is a strange phenomenon in this enlightened century to hear so many complain, as we do, that Russia is trying to secure these ends not by war, but by "diplomacy" and by "biding her time." The reason why she can attain these ends by these means lies in the fact that the Fates are working for her. The natural and legitimate growth of the country is making the accomplishment of this object inevitable, and so far as we can see, it will be a blessing to the immediate region over which she is bound to extend her control, and probably a boon to all mankind. G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

DUTCH ART AT THE GUILDHALL.

LONDON, April 23, 1903.

The exhibition at the Guildhall has now become one of the most important events of this busy season of big art exhibitions in London. It has opened this year simultaneously with the New Gallery, which simply cannot compete with it in interest. Of course, the aims and scope of the two shows are wholly different. To the New Gallery, as to the Royal Academy, artists send the work they have just done; at the Guildhall, a loan collection, representing one man, or one school, or one country, is hung. If this loan collection of pictures, many of which are already exhibited, proves the more important, it is because the managers of the New Gallery, instead of securing the finest examples of the best artists of to-day who do not send to the

Academy, are content with commonplace. At the Guildhall, while commonplace has crept in, while it even, as I shall explain, prevails in one section, it has at least some sort of suggestive value in the historical sequence.

Primarily, the show is one of work by earlier and modern painters of the Dutch school. It is a large subject for comparatively small space, especially as the largest room in the Guildhall gallery is given over to an entirely separate collection. The earlier masters have suffered the most. As far as they are concerned, more could easily have been made of the limited opportunity. For when so little could be shown, it seems to me that this little should have consisted of one or more masterpieces by each of the great masters, instead of a few fine paintings and many inferior works of interest to nobody but the dealer in attributions. There are pictures by Frans Hals and Rembrandt that one need not be a Morellian to refuse to those painters, who, surely, would turn in their graves could they know that such performances were being foisted upon them. But then there is also one fine portrait by each that the artist and the art lover would travel many miles to see. "Admiral De Ruyter," by Hals, lent by Earl Spencer, is a strong study of strong character. It is a three-quarter length, the figure posed with as much feeling for the commanding force of the man as for its place on the canvas, the face broadly modelled, and the costume of black, with full white sleeves and a white collar, put in with the technical freedom that makes Hals seem so very modern—yet what modern could be quite so supremely skilful? You feel the strength of a man born to lead and to conquer in this portrait by the Dutch master, even as you do in the Admiral by Velasquez. Rembrandt's portrait of his son Titus, as a youth of thirteen, lent by a French collector who calls himself Monsieur X., has been seen in recent years at the Rembrandt shows in Amsterdam and London, and needs no description. But to see it again is to feel again the beauty of the face and the splendor of the color.

Perhaps it is because these two pictures give the standard of Dutch art in the past that so much else of the old work strikes one as trivial and insignificant. But there are still a few other fine things. From the same French collection comes a Ver Meer that I have never seen before anywhere, "The Cook Asleep." It is one of the usual simple Dutch gray interiors, almost bare of incident, save for a map on the wall, the rich cover of the table upon which a plate of fruit, a flagon, and a bottle are set, and the woman who sits sleeping in a corner. At the back of the room, a door opens into another apartment as quiet and gray and bare. But it all has the beauty of tone, the complete pictorial unity, by which Ver Meer and one or two other of the old Dutchmen could transform the most prosaic scene or subject with something as poetic as any Parnassus or Paradise imagined by the Italian painter. The way the black rod of the map tells against the gray wall, and the quality of that wall, the detail in the cover and the fruit, the beautiful painting of the head, so well enveloped in atmosphere, retaining so perfectly its relation to the gray background from which it is so tenderly detached—these are things

worth all the thought and meaning with which the old masters of symbolism are supposed to have crowded their pictures, while they give to their painting as a whole as much dignity and solemnity as if the cook sleeping in her corner were the Madonna on her throne.

Two little portraits of women attributed to Terburg should offer a chance to the Morellian, but, however he decides, there can be no question of the charm of a silken skirt in one, of a white cap with wonderful little touches of gold in the other. And there is also a noble landscape, "Le Commencement d'orage," long catalogued and even engraved in the last century as a Rembrandt, but now presented to De Koninck by the critics, who are unanimously generous in determining that the lesser painter should not be robbed of his one masterpiece in favor of the great master who can so well spare it. There are pictures by De Koninck in the National Gallery, as well as at Amsterdam, and doubtless in most other national collections where Dutch pictures are so many as to seem at a discount; but I confess they have left with me the vaguest impression. It may be that this one splendid exception—if it is really his work, as I leave it to the critics to decide—was painted immediately under the supervision of Rembrandt, whose pupil he was. In any case, its impressiveness cannot be denied. A wide, flat, brown country, through which a stream wanders toward the sea, lies in sombre but warm shadow under a sky, spacious and cloud-swept, that must have made Jacob Maris despair if he ever saw the picture, which is now in the possession of Lady Wantage. There is plenty of pictorial incident—a windmill, a group of red-roofed cottages, figures, a town, a many-arched bridge. But the details are so harmoniously subordinated that the effect of the landscape as a whole is retained no less completely than if the country were empty as one of Pointelin's barren moorlands. Though there are a few pictures besides—notably one by Palamedes, usually a second-rate painter, of a lady at a harpsichord—that might be mentioned among the exceptions, these certainly are the works that give most distinction to the room devoted to the earlier Dutch painters.

When it comes to the modern painters—and there is no link between them and the giants of the seventeenth century—the chief merit to me seems to be in the unusually large and representative series of paintings by Matthys Maris, an artist who now rarely exhibits—who, for that matter, now rarely produces. Many of his most beautiful pictures, done before he became a slave to his ideals, belong to English and Scotch collectors, and I have seen individual examples every now and then in other loan exhibitions. But never, to my knowledge, have such a number been hung together. There is, therefore, an admirable chance to study his methods and his achievement. I cannot say that the collection alters the opinion I had already formed; to me there is still no question that he was most accomplished when he was least vague and elusive. It may be that he is now busy in pursuit of far higher ideals, but if these elude him so persistently just as he endeavors to realize them on his canvas, it cannot be marvelled that in his halting expression of them they should escape us altogether. Perhaps this is the reason he now finishes so

little. There is only one of his most recent pictures here—not a picture really, but the "Study" the catalogue calls it—which I remember having seen two or three years ago in the little Dutch Gallery. That he meant to express something charming in the two figures dimly discerned through a mist of paint there can be no doubt, but exactly what it was you wonder if he himself could say. Yet, all this elusiveness, all this vagueness, is based upon a technical precision, a minuteness in detail, that might have served as model for the English Pre-Raphaelites. A small study of "Still Life" is shown, a painting of carrots and cabbages placed against a brass plaque in the approved Dutch manner, in which, as in the Ver Meer in the adjoining room, the only beauty the painter has sought to record is the beauty of tone and color, and the only means he has used a literal and faithful copying of the objects before him. According to the catalogue, this was painted in 1872—his finest period, for to it belong also the lovely little "Four Mills," the "Montmartre," and the "Outskirts of a Town," all three full of the most careful detail, all three as poetical portraits of places as have ever been painted. There is no vagueness here, either in his manner of seeing and feeling or in his endeavor to make us see and feel with him. And if you take the last of these three, a gray town by a gray river bank on a gray winter evening, and study it carefully, you must be simply amazed at the ingenious design: the arrangement of long parallel lines in the sad pale walls, the sadder river, and the melancholy sky with the bare trees silhouetted against it; the rhythmical way in which the one tower rises above the houses at once to break and concentrate the composition; the value of the little green patches on the desolate river bank. Matthys Maris never did anything more impressive and exquisite. But in many of the pictures that followed (and a number are included in the present series), you begin to be conscious of the vagueness, the mist which was later to envelop design and detail, in which, indeed, they have now lost themselves altogether.

It must be confessed that much of the work of Jacob Maris seems in comparison only a brilliant technical exercise. He was more the artist, less the conjuror, with the brush, when he was still under the influence of his brother Matthys, and painted such sober, quiet little pictures as the well-known "Peacock Feather," "Bird-cage," and "Shrine"; also marvels of minuteness and fine reticent color. But in later years he painted too much. He gained in breadth without ever tumbling into the pitfall of vagueness; but his brown towns, his blue milkpails, even his big lowering skies came to have in them something of a trick, a convention. However, when he did not dash them off according to recipe, when he studied his Holland with sympathy or made you feel that he did, he could be very stately and dignified, and the large "River and Windmills" and "Gathering Seaweed," the small "Souvenir of Dordrecht" and "A Small Bit of Delft," show him at his very best. Israels, likewise, has been the victim of over-production, the tool of his sentimental public. His pathos, too, has gradually become a matter of recipe, and more often than not degenerates into sheer mawkishness and sham. As Mr. Henley puts it, "his

appeal is all too obvious. He makes no secret of his design upon your tears." And the result is that, when you see a long succession of his fishermen and fishwives at home and at work, as you do at the Guildhall (Mr. Staats Forbes and other British collectors having emptied their walls that his representation may be complete), you are tempted with Mr. Henley to receive his pathos with scoffs and sneers. But he can paint when he chooses, and there is pathos of the right sort—the painter's pathos—in the quality he gets in a simple cottage wall, or in the tiles about the chimney, the pots and plates on the mantel above, or in the glimpse of a quiet, gray Dutch landscape through a white-curtained window. And here are some of his most genuine performances—the "Sewing School at Katwyk," the "Ray of Sunshine," "In the Surf," and a few others that would seem still more accomplished were it not for the innumerable repetitions by himself and his followers.

Willem Maris, the least distinguished of the three brothers, is not seen to advantage. Mauve fares better, and many of the landscapes, and studies, and animals by him justify a reputation that has suffered at the hands of the dealers. Where the exhibition is lamentably weak is in the poor showing it makes of men like Breitner and Witsen, hanging only one example of the first, only two of the latter, though every one who has been to the museum of modern work in Amsterdam knows what a vigorous and very personal painter he is. Bauer fares no better, though he also deserves greater consideration. Van Toorop is ignored altogether. Nor is there anything to suggest that admirable black-and-white work is being done to-day in Holland. The omissions are many and serious, but there still remains much that is fine and interesting, and no American coming to London this spring and summer should miss a visit to the Guildhall.

I have referred to a quite separate collection that fills the largest room and has nothing whatever to do with the Dutch work. It is a collection of pictures lately bequeathed to the Corporation of London by a Mr. Gassiot, described as "Citizen and Vintner." He collected, it is evident, during the second half of the Victorian era, when the Royal Academy gave the standard, when the Royal Academy was rich in Friths and Faeds, Leaders, and the later story-telling Millais. By a curious chance there is no accounting for, the ideal being what it was, a few good pictures did somehow find a place. But the collection, as a whole, represents a fashion in these matters that, fortunately, has passed or is passing. It is annoying now to see it taking up space that might have been used so much more profitably; but its presence in the Guildhall at the present moment has at least one use: it proves, eloquently enough, how entirely the standards of art have changed in Great Britain—and changed for the better. While the late Mr. Gassiot was collecting his pictures, the very word Romanticism meant revolution and anarchy to the average British picture-buyer. I have quoted Mr. Henley. Within the year he has republished in book form the criticism he wrote, not more than a dozen years ago, of the

Romanticists, French and Dutch, and he has found it necessary to explain in his preface that the praise which is the commonplace of to-day, at the time of writing sounded singular and violent. And so now, it is the most natural thing in the world that the treasures of the British collector should be the works of the Romanticists, and that these should be in demand for popular exhibitions, while the old Academical masterpieces, beloved by the late Mr. Gassiot and his generation, appear as old-fashioned as the really great work of art never can and never does. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS SERIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to offer some explanations in regard to certain points brought out in the excellent review which appeared in your columns, April 30, of the historical series entitled "The Philippine Islands—1493-1803." As was stated in the prospectus of the work, the list of documents to be published was necessarily only a partial one; it included the classics of printed Philippine historical literature, supplemented by such manuscript material from foreign archives as belonged to the early period which ended about 1640. It is obvious that, in so extensive a series, new material must continually be found, as a result of investigations in so many libraries and archives; and that it is impossible to enumerate all the documents at the start. In the period above mentioned, commerce and missions are naturally the predominant subjects, but other aspects of Philippine history are by no means forgotten or slighted in our plans; they will duly appear in their natural development or sequence. One of the editors, Mr. James A. Robertson, is at this time in Seville, Spain, engaged in researches for material to be used in this work among the manuscripts collected in the great Archivo de Indias. He will also visit the libraries and archives of Madrid, Simancas, Rome, Paris, London, and other cities for the same purpose; and we are making arrangements for similar investigations in Manila and Mexico. We desire to make our selection of documents as broad and representative as possible, but the enormous mass of documentary and printed material for Philippine history, and the limitations imposed by necessity on the space available for publication, render the task of selection one of great difficulty, and we shall be compelled to omit many documents which are valuable and interesting, because we cannot find room for them. For this same reason we have found it necessary to halt at the beginning of the nineteenth century; the documents of that century alone could easily fill a long series of volumes, and we are limited to only fifty-five.

A few words as to our editorial attitude. In both the selection and the presentation of material our aim is historical accuracy, entire freedom from partisan or sectarian considerations, and fairness toward all classes and interests. Our readers need not fear either a pro-friar or an anti-friar attitude on our part; we shall simply fur-

nish the most important and valuable documents that we can secure, and those most truthful and authentic, for the purpose of tracing the course of Philippine history. Others may engage in controversies; our effort and hope are only to furnish some light by which disputed points may be made clear and the truth made known.

Both of the editors were engaged in similar work on the Cleveland reissue of the 'Jesuit Relations,' and to our publisher, Mr. Arthur H. Clark, was due (as is well known to many persons) the original idea of that important historical enterprise, and the successful conduct of its publication. The notably impartial and fair attitude, of that work will therefore be continued and assured in the conduct of the present series.

EMMA HELEN BLAIR,

Editor of 'The Philippine Islands.'

STATE HISTORICAL LIBRARY,
MADISON, WIS., May 13, 1903.

NOT SO BLACK AS PAINTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A rainy day in our Ozark camp induces me to write a protest against your designation of St. Louis as the most corrupt and one of the hottest cities, as alleged in your issue of May 7. I question whether any city of its size has less corruption; not a breath of scandal has ever been heard of in connection with the large city departments, in charge of appointive and professional officials. Even during the late Ziegenhein régime, the Sewer Commissioner, the Water Department, the Park Commissioner were all of the highest repute. Furthermore, our Public School Board, with its immense revenues and responsibilities, has for years been made up of the very best representative citizens, and its affairs so conducted that even the critical editor of the *Nation* would have only words of praise. The corruption to which St. Louis owes its notoriety is almost exclusively confined to the lower house of the municipal assembly, which is elected by wards, controlled by bosses who are much the same in St. Louis as in New York and elsewhere.

Regarding climate, I wish to state that, taking the average of the entire year into consideration, St. Louis will compare very favorably with any other either here or abroad. From October 1 to almost Christmas our Indian summer gives us a nearly unbroken sequence of ideal days; after a short winter, we have three or four spring months almost equalling the fall. The excessive hot weather in summer usually lasts only a few weeks, and, owing to the lack of humidity, the heat is not as unbearable as a much lower temperature in Boston or New York. The writer has spent five or six years abroad at various times, but knows of no better place for a continual residence; finer climatic conditions can doubtless be found by spending the winter on the Riviera, the summer in Norway, spring in California, and autumn in the Adirondacks. Such a composite climate is not given to any one place; and it is doubtless true that a New Englander dropping in on us during our hot spell with the thermometer hovering around 105, would not care much for our average climate.—Very truly yours.

J. M. WULFING.

STONE MILL SPRING, May 10, 1903.

LYNCHING AND COLONEL LYNCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a letter published in your issue of December 4, 1902, in which Mr. Albert Matthews ably discusses the early history of lynch law, some uncertainty is expressed in regard to the connection between Charles Lynch and Lynch law.

In the first place it may be said that the note in W. Wirt's *Life of Patrick Henry* (1818), page 372, was without doubt written by Wirt and not by Roane. In William Wirt Henry's *Life of Patrick Henry*, II., 482, the "MS. letter of Judge Roane to Mr. Wirt" is given, but the note is not included.

Henry Howe, in his 'Historical Collections of Virginia,' in a section entitled "Lynch Law," says:

"At that time [the time of the Revolution], this country [Campbell County and vicinity] was very thinly settled, and infested by a lawless band of Tories and desperadoes. The necessity of the case involved desperate measures, and Col. Lynch, then a leading Whig, apprehended and had them punished, without any superfluous ceremony. Hence the origin of the term 'Lynch Law.' This practice of lynching continued years after the war, and was applied to many cases on mere suspicion of guilt, which could not be regularly proven." (Published at Charleston, S. C., in 1845. See p. 212 for the quotation.)

In a book written a few years later than the above, Howe has the following to say on the same subject:

"The Lynch Law, as it is termed, originated in Virginia at the time of the American Revolution, and was first adopted by Colonel Lynch against a lawless band of Tories and desperadoes, who infested the country at the base of the Blue Ridge. This plan was afterwards followed in the West, and its operation was salutary in ridding the country of miscreants whom the law was not strong enough to punish. The tribunal of *Squire Birch*, as the person who personated the judge was called, was established under a tree in the woods; the culprit, being usually found guilty, was tied to a tree and lashed without mercy, and then expelled from the country. In general, 'the regulators' only exercised this law upon the most base and vile characters." ('The Great West,' published at Cincinnati in 1852. See p. 183 for the quotation.)

This account given by Howe cannot be considered as wholly independent of the influence of Wirt. In his 'Historical Collections of Virginia,' Howe quotes from Wirt's book in substantiation of his statement that the practice of "Lynching" continued for years after the war. On the other hand, however, the fact that he repeated his assertions in regard to the origin of "Lynch Law" in emphatic terms in his later book, and therewith described the operation of Lynch Law in the West, is strong evidence that he had other sources of information than Wirt's book on the matter.

An account, entirely independent of any influence from either Wirt or Howe, is found in 'Colonel William Martin's Narrative of Frontier Life,' prepared about 1842 for Dr. Lyman C. Draper, and now in the Draper MS. Collections in the Wisconsin Historical Society Library. It is as follows:

"In those times there were a great many bad men settled along the frontiers who by their thefts annoyed the country greatly. Inasmuch that the people entered into combinations to suppress them and formed companies called

regulators. They formed in military style, with officers, etc.

"They also organized a court and appointed some three or four of their aged, discreet men judges to try criminal causes, award punishment, etc. The company would bring up suspected fellows and the court would try them. But they seldom extended punishment beyond whipping and driving them from the country, sometimes making them pay for property stolen, when they had the means.

"This method of breaking up combinations of rogues was first set on foot by Col. Charles Lynch, of Bedford county, Va., where I was raised. He and my father were acquainted. . . . Lynch at first punished with thirty-nine stripes, taking as I suppose Moses for his model. And this was for a great while called Lynch's law, meaning all unlawful whipping. Any of the old men now in the South and West can tell the meaning of Lynch's law.

"Lynch, however, has been improved upon and more severe punishments sometimes inflicted. I have given this feature of Western history from the presumption that you may not have known it." (See Publications of the Southern Historical Association, November, 1900, p. 463.)

Such is the strongest evidence bearing directly on the point under consideration. Other writers might be quoted giving contributory testimony to the connection of the name of Charles Lynch with the earliest form of "lynching," but space will not permit doing so here. An article on "The Origin and History of Lynch Law," by Howell Colton Featherston of the Lynchburg (Va.) Bar, will be found in the *Green Bag*, March, 1900, page 150.

J. ELBERT CUTLER.

NEW HAVEN, May 13, 1903.

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish directly 'Bank Rate and the Money Market,' in England, France, Germany, Holland, and Belgium in 1844-1890, by R. H. Inglis Palgrave, F.R.S.; and this year's Bampton Lectures, by the Rev. W. H. Hutton, on 'The Influence of Christianity upon National Character,' as illustrated by the Lives and Legends of the English Saints, with an appendix containing a hitherto unpublished manuscript Life of Edward, King and Martyr, and another on mediæval miracles.

The superb limited edition of Hakluyt's 'Principal Navigations, Voyages, Traffiques and Discoveries of the English Nation' will be marketed in this country by Macmillan Co. at monthly intervals. They are also about to publish 'Bass, Pike, Perch and Others,' by Dr. James Henshall, in the "American Sportsman's Library," and 'World's Children,' by Dorothy Menpes, with 100 illustrations in color.

The Civic Press, Bible House, announces 'Quo Vaditis? A Call to the Old Moralities.'

Warren K. Moorehead has in preparation, for publication through the Robert Clarke Co., Cincinnati, two volumes entitled 'The Stone Age: An Archaeological Encyclopedia of the Implements, Ornaments, etc., of the Prehistoric Tribes of the United States,' with more than a thousand figures illustrating some five thousand variations of types.

'A Reader's History of American Literature,' by Thomas Wentworth Higginson in collaboration with Henry W. Boynton, is announced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Among the new Vale Press volumes proceeding from John Lane are an abridgment

of Ronsard's 'L'Art Poétique Française,' and a selection from his Sonnets, in both cases in the original. The latter publication synchronizes with the appearance of 'Songs and Sonnets of Pierre de Ronsard,' translated by Curtis Hidden Page, which Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will issue in a limited, numbered, luxurious edition.

'The Responsibilities of the Novelist, and Other Literary Essays' and 'A Deal in Wheat, and Other Stories of the New and Old West,' by the late Frank Norris, will form part of the complete edition of his works which Doubleday, Page & Co. are bringing out. They are entirely new to print.

Our special correspondent at the late International Historical Congress at Rome, made a brief reference to the very illuminative exhibit contrived by Prof. D. Gnoli, director of the Biblioteca Vittorio Emanuele. In six rooms were displayed plans of ancient Rome, with plans and panoramic views of the mediæval and the modern city. The several stages before demolition were thus shown, along with Canina's original water-color drawings for the reconstruction of ancient edifices. A catalogue of all this is in preparation, but the principles of the collection have been already set forth in a brochure by the same scholar (Rome: Co-operative Social Printing-house). Colonel Rocchi is reported to be on the point of publishing a weighty volume on the city plans of the sixteenth century.

Our correspondent, by the way, writes: "The statement that the Campanile of St. Mark's will be rebuilt in three years, is misleading. It will take a year to make the necessary brick, three years to construct the main shaft, and another year to add the pinnacle and the *loggetta*—or five years in all. The three years mentioned in my letter referred only to the time actually required in construction."

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have made a charming little book of the dozen letters, constituting the 'Correspondence between R. W. Emerson and Herman Grimm,' which, under the editorship of Mr. F. W. Holls, have already seen the light in the April *Atlantic*. But the original German is now first given beside the translation, which, while generally adequate, is seen not to keep the level of Grimm's elevated yet simple style. Nor is the translator's English always impeccable. "Please send us a very good portrait of you" (p. 53) needs mending for idiom, and is not an exact rendering of "ein recht ähnliches Portrait"—truly faithful, or really like. So in what comes next: "I have succeeded in getting some which *no longer*, however, seem to me to be good likenesses"—for "nicht ähnlich scheinen," that is, seem not like. The worst slip we have noticed is on page 75. Grimm encloses "ein Blatt ihrer Tochter, einen *Stich* nach dem ersten und letzten Gemälde," etc., here translated, "a sheet of her [Frau Grimm's] daughter—a shepherd after the first and last painting," etc.—where we should read "a print of her daughter, an engraving after," etc. These letters, sometimes constrained, one thinks, by his addressing a foreigner, show Emerson tolerably at ease in reading German, without being able to pronounce or speak it, and freely ordering books for his library in that language. It will be remembered that M. Auguste Laugel, visiting him in Concord during the war, re-

marked the number of paper-bound books on his shelves.

The Emerson portrait in this brochure (there is also one of Grimm) is the well-known full-page standing figure, with hands clasped in front. The same has been made the basis of an etching, much enlarged in scale and stopping short of the knees, by Mr. Gustav Kruell of East Orange, N. J. This print deserves the attention of collectors in the present centennial week. The method is dry point, if we do not mistake, and there is some admirable technique—remarkable indeed as coming from one who has attained the highest distinction as an engraver on wood, a contrary process. The face may not quite satisfy those who recall the sweetness and high gentility of Emerson's, even if it retains the shrewd and speculative expression that fits the rural philosopher; to us the personality is rather sequestered in the hands, of which the execution is very plastic. For the main outlines and proportions of the slender figure a photographic accuracy has been secured.

Mr. Charles Booth is now approaching the conclusion of his remarkable investigation into the 'Life and Labor of the People in London' (Macmillan Co.). The section just published deals with a subject much more difficult to treat scientifically than either "Poverty" or "Industry," for "Religious Influences" must necessarily be estimated by methods from which the bias and temperament of the investigator cannot entirely be eliminated. Mr. Booth and his assistants have brought together a mass of material illustrating the work of the various churches and missions of London, but this material has been selected largely at haphazard, without very great care for accuracy, and the judgment expressed is often no more than a superficial impression. When, for instance, Mr. Booth declares that the congregation at a certain mission service does not contain persons who have been lifted out of depraved conditions, one cannot help asking, "How does he know?" On the whole, the writer's conclusions are uttered with a confidence which scarcely seems justified, but many of his criticisms and suggestions are nevertheless of value, and it would be well for the church workers, not only of London, but of other cities, to take note of them.

The Westminster Press has printed, and the Presbyterian Board (Philadelphia) sends out, 'Studies of Familiar Hymns,' by Dr. Louis F. Benson, who had previously edited several hymnals and commented on some of their contents. His work is not at all in the sketchy style of forty years ago, when English hymnology—as distinct from hymn-making—was in its infancy; every fact is run to earth as far as possible (as in the case of "God bless our native land"), and presented clearly. It is true that not much remained to do in this line, for the ground is pretty well covered by Mr. Julian's 'Dictionary.' Nor are the twenty-five hymns here gathered offered as "the best," which might be invidious; but some of them are certainly among the best, and we may take Dr. Benson's word for it that all of them are "familiar." Only four of them date back of 1800, and nine are from the Church of England since her hymnic awakening. Of the ten American pieces, Episcopalians wrote three, Unitarians as many, while two come from Congregationalists, one is by a Presby-

terian, and one by a Baptist. Lest the editor should be suspected of undue leaning to a communion not his own, he points out (p. 236) the curious fact that a good and useful Lenten hymn of Dean Milman, in general use since its appearance in 1827, was never appreciated by the American Episcopal authorities till the present book was issued in 1892. Dr. Benson's handling of his themes, like his selection of them, is catholic and modern in spirit. He praises Samuel Longfellow and his work, while mildly lamenting his progress from "Christianity" to theism, as shown in the two "Sam books" of 1846 and 1864.

Miss L. E. Hill, the director of physical training in Wellesley College, is the editor of a series of articles on "Athletics and Outdoor Sports for Women" (Macmillan Co.), in which no less than sixteen varieties of games and sports are described by experts, with hints for beginners and abundant illustrations. Golf is ably treated by Miss Frances Griscom, and Equestrianism by Mrs. Beach, while Field Hockey, which was introduced to American colleges for women only two years since, is described by its pioneer, Miss Applebee. No one can learn an outdoor game from a book of this kind, but every woman who is interested in one of these branches of athletics (and few women are not) will find useful hints and recognize the weak points in her own "form" from the warnings of these concise chapters. The book is the heaviest for its size that we have met in these days of heavy, highly-glazed paper.

The needs of our amateur botanists are well met by the new books on the identification of plants which have come to hand. Among the later aspirants to favor are the two excellent handbooks on woody plants from the press of Charles Scribner's Sons. 'Our Northern Shrubs, and How to Identify Them,' by Harriet L. Keeler, has good reproductions from photographs, and the text appears to have been worked out with care. 'Trees, Shrubs, and Vines of the Northeastern United States,' with their characteristic landscape features fully described for identification by the non-botanical reader, together with an account of the principal foreign hardy trees, shrubs, and vines cultivated in our country and found in Central Park, New York city, by H. G. Parkhurst, is likewise well illustrated, and interesting. One must not search too closely for the faults which such handbooks contain, since in few cases are the slight errors likely to be misleading to the users of them. So far as the scope of these two is concerned, they may fairly be called rivals; nevertheless, they supplement each other. At least, it cannot do harm to the students of our shrubs to learn something with regard to the variety which now exists in the nomenclature of our common shrubs, and the like, owing to well-meant endeavors to improve certain inconsistencies in the names of our plants. It now plainly appears that the times were not yet ripe for authoritative convention respecting the generic and specific names. Out of the existing chaos, order is probably to come soon, perhaps within the next score of years, but at present it is well for amateurs and for real students to have at their command works in which the different proposals as to names are clearly brought out.

'Trees and Shrubs of Prospect Park

(Brooklyn), by Louis Harman Peet (New York: American Printing-house), is a capital guide to the woody plants there grown. It is convenient in size, well written, and is provided with instructive maps or diagrams which satisfy every reasonable requirement. A busy man seeking an afternoon's recreation in this beautiful park could hardly have better direction for his footsteps than the handbook and its outline sketches; and certainly the lounge, who is not pressed for time, could not possibly do better than to follow out slowly the charming walks suggested by the author of this work.

The excellent engravings in 'Principal Species of Wood: Their Characteristic Properties,' by Charles Henry Snow, Dean of the School of Applied Science, New York University (John Wiley & Sons), which exhibit the aspect of the timber trees, have been well selected. It is rather a pity that the pages devoted to these fine reproductions have been made to carry also the burden of certain details which detract from the general effect of the photographs. It would have been better, on many accounts, to keep the photomicrograms and the delineations of the trunk-bark separate. In the text the author has brought together a great amount of matter useful to engineers and to all workers in woods. A little fuller introduction explanatory of the technical terms employed would make the treatise more useful to the general reader; such terms as "modulus of elasticity" and "modulus of rupture" mean very little to the beginner. But the beginner, and in fact every general reader, will be glad to have the clear definition of quartered oak, which is given in the following words: "Logs are sometimes sawn into quarters, and then into pieces crossing and exposing the yearly rings. These quarter-sawn surfaces are structurally stronger and better, but are, by reason of waste or small pieces, more costly than others. The pith-rays of some woods, such as oaks, are very prominent when split as they are in quarter-sawing, and the appearance of such woods is consequently improved." The nomenclature is somewhat confusing. In the case of *Kauri*, *Dammara* and not *Agathis* is employed, while in other cases the names go abreast or even a little ahead of the most advanced reforms. A full and accurate index removes, however, all liability to serious error or even misunderstanding in the matter of generic and specific names.

Mr. Henry F. Waters's Genealogical Gleanings in England were anything but exhausted in the two stout volumes in which they were finally published. While he himself has resought his native New England, his thousands of notes have been left in England, at least temporarily, and their present custodian, Mr. Lothrop Withington, has leave to prepare them at his convenience for the printer. These references to wills and administrations have accordingly begun to appear in the April number of the *Genealogical Quarterly* (Boston: The Research Publication Co.), in an alphabetical order (Abbott-Agas). They lack, of course, Mr. Waters's masterly correlation and the cooperative annotation by local genealogists which lent so much value to the original 'Gleanings.' Still, the editor of the *Quarterly*, Mr. Eben Putnam, contributes here and there a note, besides references to the 'Gleanings.' The source

of the new matter is always indicated. In the same number of the *Quarterly* the early records of the First Church in Cambridge, Mass., begin to be printed.

In the Consular Reports for May it is stated that there was a decrease in the crude-oil production of the Baku fields in 1902, the first in eight years, on account of the overproduction of the previous year. The price declined to a "figure which was in many cases less than the amount to be paid the Government as royalty on the territory." The exports fell off, also, in consequence of the strikes of the workmen in the can and case factories. Consul-General Mason of Berlin reports an improvement in Germany's business conditions in the past year, but says that there are still signs of industrial paralysis which are not encouraging. The most significant of these is the decrease of the imports of the indispensable raw materials of manufacture and the cheap food materials which are essential to economical labor. He also contributes a valuable account, with illustrations, of the potato as a source of wealth in Germany. Its importance may be gathered from the fact that for every 10,000 inhabitants there were planted in 1900 160 acres of potatoes, as against 31 acres in Great Britain and Ireland and 34.8 acres in the United States. By an elaborate scheme of scientific fertilizing and cultivating organized by the Bureau of Agriculture and carried out in experiment stations in different parts of the empire, "the general yield per acre has been raised by not less than 38 per cent. during the past ten years." A continually increasing part of the crop is used in the manufacture of alcohol for motors and household purposes, as lighting and heating.

—It has been a commonplace of American history that the founders of the English colonies were men of considerable education. The early annals are full of evidences of the fact, not only that there were many university graduates, but that, what is more important, most of the first settlers in New England had a thorough grounding in the elementary branches of learning. Just what their schooling consisted in, however, has been a question frequently asked, but not satisfactorily answered. Many attempts have been made to describe the beginnings of the American public school, but each fails in the essential particular of telling what and how the seventeenth-century schools taught the children. The difficulty has been that no one had investigated with sufficient care the old English schools in which the colonial settlers received their first lessons, and which they undertook to reestablish in America. The solution of the puzzle is due to Prof. Foster Watson of the University College of Wales, who has for some years been gathering notes on early English textbooks. His description of these, "The Curriculum and Text-books of English Schools in the first half of the Seventeenth Century," published in the *Transactions of the Bibliographical Society* (London, February, 1903), is a very important contribution to an understanding of the intellectual equipment of the people who left England in and after 1607, 1620, and 1630. Professor Watson shows that the notes of sermons, in shorthand, in abstract, in heads, in commentary, which bulk so largely in every collection of the "re-

mains" of colonial times, were not merely an expression of the intense religious interest of the period, but were a direct result of school training, which required the pupils, as a part of the regular school exercise, to reproduce the weekly sermons. "Besides," as Brinsley explains, in his 'Ludus Literarius, or the Grammar School,' published in 1612, "it will keep them from playing, talking, sleeping, and all other disorders in the church. To this end, therefore, pose diligently all those whom you observe or suspect most negligent; then you will have them to attend heedfully." And, further, that there may be no possible doubt that the stern Puritans, in their youth, resembled some of their remote descendants, "there must be great care by the monitors, that they trouble not their fellows, nor the congregation, in asking notes, or stirring out of their places to seek one another, or any other disorder." Professor Watson is planning to organize an "Early Text-Book Reprint Society," to reproduce the more significant of these guides to what the seventeenth century knew. It is to be hoped that he will receive ample support from American libraries and students, to which these should appeal quite as much as to English students of history and education.

—In volume x. of the Camden Miscellany the Royal Historical Society publishes three new documents: the Journal of Sir Roger Wilbraham for the years 1593-1616, a diary of travels by Sir Thomas Hoby, and a narrative entitled "Prince Rupert at Lisbon." The last is the shortest of the three, but possesses some importance as proving that Prince Rupert had made diplomatic arrangements in 1649 which gave him free access to the court of Lisbon, and placed the King of Portugal in almost open antagonism to the Commonwealth. Dr. S. R. Gardiner wrote a short preface for this relation, and Mrs. Gardiner has revised the text for the press. Of the other two pieces, we have found Wilbraham's Journal less striking than Hoby's. Wilbraham was Solicitor-General in Ireland and Master of Requests during the last years of Elizabeth and at the opening of the reign of James I. He was an unworthy person, who fattened on the spoils of Ireland and wrote a fulsome panegyric of Elizabeth and James. The Master of Requests was supposed to exercise a certain equity jurisdiction, but under such a man as Wilbraham the expenses of law could have been cheapened little if at all, while the Master's judgments were probably subject to the same influences which affected those of Lord Bacon. Sir Thomas Hoby, on the contrary, was an amiable and accomplished man, a student of languages and a diplomatist of great promise. His translation of Castiglione's 'Cortegiano' is almost as famous as Florio's 'Montaigne,' and very probably had some effect from holding up the ideals of a gentleman to the admiration of Tudor England. Sir Philip Hoby, an elder brother of the translator, rose in the service of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. until he became a privy councillor and envoy to the Imperial Court.

—Thomas was born in 1530, received his education at Cambridge under Sir John Cheke and at Strassburg under Martin Bucer, spent 1550 in Italian travel, and afterwards entered upon a diplomatic

career. He was only twenty-three years old when he made his translation of the 'Cortegiano,' which was four times reprinted during the reign of Elizabeth. The most interesting portions of his diary relate to his travels in southern Italy and his account of German vents in 1552, the year when Maurice of Saxony chased Charles V. from Innsbruck and extorted from him the concessions of Passau. One gathers from Hoby's description of the Terra di Lavoro and Sicily that these regions enjoyed a greater degree of prosperity at the middle of the sixteenth century than one might be inclined to suppose from a general knowledge of Spanish administration. As for the events of 1552, Hoby was in a position to get accurate intelligence from his brother, Sir Philip. We give a little anecdote regarding the Duke of Alva. At Innsbruck there dwelt in 1552 a gun founder, "one of the best in his science of all Christendom, a verie discreate and sober parson. This mann' (as he told my brother the tale) had a . . . great peeces of artillarie in hand for the Duke of Alava, which he minded to carie into Spaine. Upon these peeces the Duke had cawsed to bee graven the armes of Philipp, Lansgrave of Hess, with his stile, which was the Emperor's prisoner, and all for a certain vain glorie that menn shuld beleave he had gotten them in the feeld by prowess of armes. The Lansgrave's sonn, who was in Duke Maurice hoost, seeing those peeces there with his father's armes upon them, ceased upon them and tooke them awaye with him, geving to the gunn founder's wyff an hundrethe crownes to drinke." Sir Thomas Hoby became envoy to the Court of France in 1566, and died at Paris about four months after his appointment, aged thirty-six.

—An octavo of 543 pages (Longmans, Green & Co.) is entitled 'Higher Mathematics for Students of Chemistry and Physics,' by Dr. J. W. Mellor. It consists of a limping treatise on the calculus and matters connected therewith, including trigonometry, the theory of equations, and the like, to which are appended fifteen pages of numerical tables. It will prove a handy instrument for anybody who has not the same thing in more convenient form on his shelves; but its limitations will be a perpetual vexation. Such a book ought to be written by a master of the subject, a very different person from Dr. Mellor. Mathematics is useful to the physicist in two ways. First, it enables him to solve his own problems instead of employing a mathematician. In this respect it is a great convenience, but not indispensable. Secondly, it supplies him with fundamental conceptions and methods of thinking without which he never can rise from the ranks of the army of science. A volume like this can be of service only in the former way. The prime necessity for a chemist or physicist who proposes to do his own sums is a mastery of synthetic geometry. Beginning with the new doctrine of multitudes and ordinal numbers as a propædæutic, he should first familiarize himself with the results and methods of topics—the geometry of a universe of distortable but unbreakable things, no standard of straightness or of length being supposed. Next should come graphics, the doctrine of un-

limited straight lines, comprising perspective, projective geometry, graphical statics, etc.—invaluable tools, all. Next, metrics, comprising the elements of geometry, Euclidean and Non-Euclidean, the Brocard geometry, etc. Of all this synthetic mathematics Dr. Mellor gives not one word; and his book should have been entitled, not Higher Mathematics, but Mathematical Analysis. Passing to this, the student should begin with algebra and analytic geometry, of which Dr. Mellor gives extracts. He should then make himself as familiar with the calculus of finite differences in its entirety as with his mother-tongue. Dr. Mellor allots about twenty-five pages to the fringes of this subject. Then should come the differential calculus, including trigonometry and the theory of functions, in its fullest modernity. Here quaternions may be taken up. Finally, such subjects as probabilities, rigid dynamics, molecular dynamics, hydrodynamics, viscosity, aerodynamics, must be studied. It is a vast course; but one cannot take high rank among the coming generation of physicists or chemists at any cheaper rate. A hand-book of rules and formulæ, of which there already are several, though none which accurately meets the need, would be, of course, an immense convenience. Numerical tables are best given in separate collections. A collection better suited to the uses of physicists than any now existing could easily be made, but in any case he would require his separate Crelle's 'Rechentafeln.'

SIR WILFRID LAURIER AND THE LIBERAL PARTY OF CANADA.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the Liberal Party: A Political History. By J. S. Willison. In two volumes. Toronto: George N. Morang & Co., Limited. 1903. Illustrated. Pp. 472 and 451.

Mr. Willison has been for some years the very successful and highly respected editor of the *Toronto Globe*, the chief organ of Sir Wilfrid Laurier's party. He has now exchanged that position for the editorship of an independent paper, his entrance upon which is a very interesting event in Canadian journalism. But we can scarcely expect him at once to doff the editor of the *Globe* and become the judicial critic of the leader and the party whose best advocate up to this time he has been. We must be satisfied if partiality is kept within bounds, and a reasonable measure of equity is extended to the other side.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier is a notable figure in Canadian politics. He is a Frenchman whose political character has been formed under British institutions, while he combines with that character French refinement, elegance, and tact. Not only is he an extremely pleasing speaker, both in English and in French, but he can adapt himself easily to the tastes and sentiments either of an English or of a French audience. He is, as a rule, studiously courteous in debate, and never, even in campaign speeches, is betrayed into anything violent or gross. Nobody questions his personal purity, at whatever he may be compelled to wink as a party leader. At the same time he is a complete and almost avowed opportunist. "The Prime Minister," says one who has just left his Cabinet, "has in fact no very strong opinion

on matters of this [fiscal] kind. He is an opportunist; his favorite doctrine being that each day should look out for itself." Sir Wilfrid is very happily gifted with a remarkable facility of presenting in the best light each of the successive positions into which by the current of events he is borne.

He is a Catholic, but very liberal; one of the school of Montalembert and Lacordaire, who, trying to combine Catholicism with liberty, died under a cloud of Papal displeasure. In Quebec he was numbered with the party Rouge, Liberals who are not revolutionary, though they respect the patriotic traditions of 1837, but are opposed to the political domination of the priest. There was a curious incident in this part of Sir Wilfrid Laurier's career. He was a member of the Institut Canadien, a literary society which was excommunicated in the mass for admitting anti-Catholic works. Guibord, a member of the society, died, and the Church sought to exclude him from burial in his lot in the Catholic cemetery, on the ground that he was excommunicated. Thereupon there was a lawsuit which at last went to the British Privy Council, the judges in which debated "with iron gravity," to use Carlyle's phrase, the question whether people under the ecclesiastical law of the Church of Rome could be excommunicated in the mass. The judgment was that the excommunication must be individual. Preparations were made to bury Guibord in his lot. The Catholics resisted. There was great danger of an affray; when the Bishop cut the knot by mounting the pulpit and declaring the ground in which the heretic was to be laid de-consecrated, so that the faithful around might rest uncontaminated and in peace.

Mr. Laurier passed from the Provincial Parliament at Quebec to the Dominion Parliament, where he was the chief of the French members, and soon by his eloquence won high place. When the French half-breeds of the Northwest rebelled, the heart of the French province was with them. Mr. Laurier then pleaded their cause and denounced the execution of Riel, the organizer of the rebellion, in burning words, which rose in judgment against him when he was committing himself and Canada to the excesses of British martial law in the Cape Colony.

The party styled Liberal, though without much reason, was at this time in opposition. Its leader, Mr. Alexander Mackenzie, a very honest and worthy man, though too much devoted to details, was supplanted in the leadership by Mr. Edward Blake, an eminent advocate and jurist, but, as a leader of men, out of place. Upon Mr. Blake's resignation, Mr. Laurier was presently called upon to lead the party in a general election against the Tories under their veteran, wily, and long successful chief, Sir John A. Macdonald. The history of that election given by Mr. Willison is curious. There was at the time no constitutional ground for a dissolution, but the Government, seeing that its protectionist policy—national policy, as it was called—was losing ground, resolved to snap a verdict. It was, however, necessary that some constitutional ground for a dissolution of Parliament before the expiry of its term should be assigned. The Government gave out that negotiations were on foot with the United States for reciprocity, and that it required a popular mandate. Our Secretary of State,

Mr. Blaine, at once put forth a note stating that no such negotiations were on foot between the two countries. An appeal was next made to the loyalty of the Dominion by pretending, without the shadow of a ground, that Mr. Laurier and his party were conspiring to betray Canada to the United States. The appeal, though not only dishonest but supported, as we learn from Mr. Willison's narrative, by dishonorable means, was successful, and Mr. Laurier remained in opposition.

After the death of Sir John A. Macdonald and his successor, Sir John Thompson, the Conservative party was broken up by internal dissension and treachery. Mr. Laurier and his party then came into power. Their election platform had been free trade, or at least tariff for revenue only; and their leading economist, Sir Richard Cartwright, a man of great ability and force, had been always the sworn foe of protection. But they presently showed that they appreciated the political, perhaps also the financial, influence of the protected manufacturers, and began to talk of the respect due to vested interests and of stability of tariff. To stability of tariff, however, they still adhere, refusing to listen to the demands preferred by the protected manufacturers, of course on patriotic grounds, for further measures of protection.

Mr. Laurier now shone forth in a new and very striking character—that of a French Premier, and the great man of the French province enthusiastically attached to British institutions and connection. The pledge of his attachment was a tariff giving a preference of 33 per cent. to British goods. His rewards, besides the medal of the Cobden Club, to which his title was somewhat equivocal, were knighthood, a seat in the British Privy Council, and an enthusiastic ovation in England, where all eyes were fixed upon him as he rode in the Jubilee procession. Advocates of an Imperial Zollverein and Imperial Federation believed that they had at last found their man, and the sight of Imperialism embodied in a French-Canadian might well gladden their hearts. Canadian Tories were filled with chagrin at seeing their clothes thus stolen by the Liberal chief. But the belief that England was going back to protection never had much foundation. The British grain duty, which raised the hopes of protectionists high, has been abandoned. The Canadian preference in favor of British goods has been cancelled. The dream of Imperial Zollvereiners is at an end. So, probably, will soon be the dream of Canadian contribution to the British army and fleet.

A signal instance of Sir Wilfrid Laurier's opportunism is his conduct with regard to the reform of the Senate. The Canadian Senate is not elective, but is appointed by the Crown; that is, practically, by the head of the party in power. The long reign of Sir John A. Macdonald had filled it with Conservatives. Sir Wilfrid then moved earnestly for a reform of the Senate. Deaths have now reversed the balance, and though scandalous proof of the need for reform has recently come to light in the shape of an attempted sale of a Senatorship for a contribution to the party fund, Sir Wilfrid Laurier speaks of Senate reform no more.

The political cable which binds Canada

to the Imperial country has, by successive concessions of self-government, been worn to the last strand; and of that strand about the strongest thread is the extraordinary craving of Colonials for Imperial titles and decorations. Sir Wilfrid Laurier is not the sort of man by whom that distorting influence is likely to be especially felt. No one would suspect him of being a sycophant or a title-hunter. But he is a knight and a Privy Councillor; and it is not in human nature that these titles, and the connection with the court and aristocracy of England which they involve, should fail in some degree to affect his sentiments and his course.

It was generally believed that Sir Wilfrid Laurier was unwilling to participate in the South African war, but yielded to the fear of being outbidden in loyalty by the Conservative Opposition, to the clandestine influence of Downing Street, and to the solicitations of a low agent of the South African Company, combined with militarist excitement. Mr. Willison, who could hardly fail to know the truth, does not contradict the common belief. The resolutions of the Canadian Parliament framed by its leader justify participation in the war on the ground that her Majesty is suzerain of the Transvaal Republic, and that "her Majesty's subjects now settled in that region are suffering under political oppression"; the political oppression consisting in the requirement of a seven years' term for naturalization (the British term being five years, with the additional requirement of the sanction in each case of the Secretary of State), while the Outlanders, for whom the concession of a shorter term was demanded, had recently invited foreign invasion.

In the preamble of the first of the two conventions with the Transvaal (1881) the term "suzerainty" was used; but it was distinctly limited to foreign relations; while in regard to domestic affairs, including, of course, the regulation of the franchise, "complete self-government" was assured. In the second convention, that of 1884, the word "suzerainty" was omitted, evidently by design, and the 'Annual Register' of the year describes the effect of the convention as "Suzerainty of England over the Transvaal abolished; England only reserving the right of veto on treaties with foreign Powers, except with the Free State and the northern Kaffir tribes." Mr. Chamberlain had himself said that "to go to war with President Kruger in order to force upon him reforms in the internal affairs of his state, with which successive Secretaries of State standing in that place had repudiated all right of interference, would have been a course of action as immoral as it would have been unwise." Lord Salisbury had said that the Boers had absolute control over their internal affairs. Mr. W. H. Smith, a Conservative leader of the House of Commons, had said, "It is a cardinal principle of that settlement [the Convention of 1884] that the internal government and legislation of the South African Republic shall not be interfered with." The Jameson raiders were tried under the Foreign Enlistment Act for fitting out an expedition against a foreign state at peace with Great Britain. The Lord Chief Justice had on that occasion defined the Transvaal as a "foreign state with which her Majesty was in friendly treaty relations." He said:

"The position of the South African Republic . . . is determined by the two Conventions of 1881 and 1884. The result is, that under these Conventions the Queen's Government recognize the complete independence and autonomy of the South African Republic, subject only to the restriction contained in the Convention of 1884, to the effect that that state should have no power to enter into any treaties without this country's consent, except as regards one or two minor states, one of which is the Orange Free State."

Did Mr. Laurier know these facts when he led the Canadian Parliament to rest its recorded justification for engaging in a war with a people who had never done Canada any wrong, on the existence of the suzerainty and the obligation to enforce political reform? Destiny can hardly apply a more decisive test to the character of a statesman than by setting him to choose between a possible loss of office and consent to an unjust or unnecessary war. That test was put to the character of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, and Sir Wilfrid Laurier chose consent to the war.

HEGEL'S LOGIC INTERPRETED.

Hegel's Logic: An Essay in Interpretation. By John Grier Hibben. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. 12mo. Pp. 313.

Hegel made easy; Hegel brought to the level of the meanest capacity. It is really surprising how clear these things can be made, if they are disembarassed of some tangles which are perhaps not so essential as they have been thought to be. The first pages delight one; but as one reads on, one begins to think that the effect is very much as if one were to explain to a child of five in the clearest terms, quite on the plane of its thought, all the facts and truths of life, domestic and social. That that child would understand life just as an adult understands it, is true in the same measure that Professor Hibben's reader will understand Hegel's philosophy as Hegel understood it. Those parts of Hegel's doctrine which set ordinary logic at defiance—that is to say, the woof and warp of his whole work—are treated as being merely a manner of phrasing. As we turn over the leaves, our eye lights often upon such expressions as "only an epigrammatic expression" (p. 86), "his epigrammatic manner" (p. 130), "striking epigram" (p. 37), "an enigmatical form" (p. 115), "the Hegelian figure" (p. 157), "should be taken in a figurative rather than a literal sense" (p. 113), "in his characteristically paradoxical manner" (p. 152), "a paradox, as thus expressed" (p. 151). Once only do we find any intimation that to Hegel himself these things were more than that; and even then it is passed by without one full sentence being given to it.

Whoever has dipped into Hegel ever so little, will ask in astonishment how it is possible to interpret him so. The explanation seems to be that the master's incessant overstraining of reason, without which his system could not have been put together, seems in this disciple, as in many another, to have had the effect of destroying all the tonicity of his thought and leaving it lax and flaccid. Here is a professor of logic who cannot even state the ordinary doctrines of his own discipline accurately. "The general standpoint . . . was that thought presents to us . . .

alternative judgments, one of which must be wholly true and its opposite wholly false." Who ever maintained such a position? The opposite of the wholly true is that which is *more or less* false. But, in accordance with this, Professor Hibben claims that "it is only when his [Hegel's] entire system is unfolded that we can have any basis for judging" it. Until a man's whole say is said, one will generally be unable to pronounce that it is wholly true; but he need sometimes go but very little way before betraying that it is more or less false, or even quite unscientific. "The traditional law of logic known as that of excluded middle [meaning the *principle of excluded middle*] is enunciated thus: 'that of two opposite predicates, one, and only one, can be assigned to one and the same subject.'" Now if a professor of logic deliberately teaches what he ought to know is false, how can we otherwise excuse him, or avoid one or another more serious accusation of him, than by saying that he is a loose thinker? The principle of excluded middle does not belong to the so-called "traditional" logic, since, although it occurs in Aristotle as a definition of the kind of opposition called contradiction, and in other passages in dissent from a statement of Plato's, yet it plays no important part in Aristotle's system, and was first made a fundamental principle by Wolf. The whole purpose of the name and of the enunciation of the principle is to render it clear that what Professor Hibben wrongly states as this principle involves two distinct principles: first, that an affirmative and its corresponding negative predicate—as "black" and "not-black"—cannot both be true of the same definite subject, in the same definite respect; and second (and *this* is the principle of excluded middle) that of two such predicates one or the other must be true of *any single individual*.

The author is equally unsuccessful in explaining the "principle of sufficient reason." He calls it "the fourth law of thought, which is associated with the name of Leibniz, and is known as the law of sufficient reason, viz.: 'Everything must have its sufficient ground,'" and he proceeds to expound it in two or three pages. This principle, for such it is usually called, not only is "associated with the name of Leibniz," but was originated by him in a more exclusive sense, perhaps, than that in which any other philosophical principle of equal renown can be attributed to any one author. Nothing bearing more than a faint resemblance to it has been found in Plato, Aristotle, the Stoics, Suarez, Descartes, Spinoza, or any other philosopher, not even in Jakob Thomasius. It is variously worded in German, but usually somewhat thus: "Alles Zufällige hat seinen zureichenden Grund." Here, the German word *Grund*, corresponding to *raison* in Leibniz's formula, should be translated "reason." Whatever Hegel meant by *Grund*, it is not the "reason" of this principle. Another inaccuracy in Prof. Hibben's statement of it, though usual enough, lies in the words "must have." Leibniz was far too nominalistic to think that existing things really *have* reasons. He may seem to say so, using the phrase "there is a reason"; but what he means and sometimes says is, that a "sufficient reason for the thing's being as it is *can be found* out by the intellect." One of the recent treatises on logic formulates the principle

very correctly, at least on one side of it, as follows: "Jedes behauptende Urtheil ist zureichend zu begründen." It is undoubtedly implied by Leibniz that a really sufficient reason must refer to some operative condition of the reality of the fact. But to assert, as Hibben and some other Hegelians have done, that Hegel's theory of reality ("Die Lehre von Wesen") is implied in the 'Monadologie,' is simply to put into a strong light the deleterious effect upon the brain of much reading of Hegel.

If we had the space to give to it, we could show that there are few, if any, statements in this book concerning the ordinary doctrines of logic or concerning the present state of logical discussion that are anything like accurate. Professor Hibben's own thought, in the few instances in which he has permitted himself anything like a free use of reason, is washy; and the maxims that he holds up for admiration—virtually, for example, that precise definitions, and precision generally, should be eschewed—are calculated to confuse discussion and to prevent its issuing in the test of experiment. Such, for instance, is the maxim "that every term which we employ in philosophical thinking should represent . . . an idea of universal and necessary significance, and that such a notion cannot have a one-sided, abstract, and rigid meaning." The proper maxim should be that ideas of universal and necessary significance and of a world of protean application may be taken one or two at a time as the *subject* of philosophical reflection; but that this reflection is of no use or meaning except so far as it is expressible in rules having reference to some conceivable practical upshot of all the thinking; so that it is the one-sided, abstract, and rigid conceptions that ought to be the philosopher's tools. Civilization, so far as physical science—including physiology and bacteriology—has had a hand in it, is the result of trying to find out what one-sided, abstract, and rigid formulæ express the way in which events will happen; and quite amazing is Professor Hibben's assertion that experientialists hold that "it is the function of thought to interpret experience, and not to anticipate it."

But, notwithstanding all we have said, it remains true that, if one does not care to trace and examine that movement of Hegel's thought which is supposed to be accurate, but wants only so much of his results and their relations to one another as is viewy and broad, then this book furnishes what one desires with greater success than any other we have seen. Of course, it is confined to the 'Encyclopædie,' and almost entirely to the 'Logik,' and that mostly as Hegel himself left it. It is a syllabus for lectures.

But all these Hegelians—Harris, Wallace, Hibben, Everett, etc.—who dog the steps of their master in almost textual comments, are profoundly unfaithful to the spirit of Hegel and of his philosophy. The 'Logik' was intended to be a mirror of the whole development of mind; and Hegel, with all that romanticism that was characteristic of his epoch, was far more essentially and determinedly a man who wished to be up to date in all his mental development. Now ninety years have paraded before us since the 'Logik' was written;

and the result is that it now condemns itself. In the first place, the system, not in its deeper and truer spirit, but as it is worked out, and notwithstanding a sop tossed in one of the closing sections, is anti-evolutionary, anti-progressive, because it represents thought as attaining perfect fulfilment. There is no conceivable fulfilment of any rational life except progress towards further fulfilment. The 'Logik' is supposed to mirror the history of mind; and its first step is made to correspond to Thales, who ninety years ago seemed to stand at the threshold of thought. Thales, however, lived only twenty-five centuries ago; and we now know that men read and wrote fifty centuries before him, while the development of mind began countless eons before man became man. And it is evident enough that all Hegel's categories properly belong to his third grand division, the *Begriff*. What, for example, could be more monstrous than to call such a conception as that of Being a primitive one; or, indeed, what more absurd than to say that the *immediate* is *abstract*? We might instance a dozen such self-refutations. That the Hegelians should have allowed the obviously unsuccessful development of the doctrine of *Wesen* to stand all these years uncorrected, is a striking instance of the mental fossilization that results from their method of study. A powerful and original study of what the true Hegelian doctrine of *Wesen* should be, according to our present lights, might breathe some real life into a modified Hegelianism, if anything could have that effect.

RECENT FICTION.

The Untilled Field. By George Moore. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Darby O'Gill and the Good People. By Herminie Templeton McClure, Phillips & Co.

Cap'n Simeon's Store. By George S. Wasson. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Middle-Aged Love Stories. By Josephine Daskam. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Adventures of Harry Revel. By A. T. Quiller-Couch. Charles Scribner's Sons.

It is common to account altogether for the sorrows of Ireland by her wrongs, and to suppose that if you give the Irish peasant the land, you will secure for that sick nation health and wealth. There are, however, intelligent Irishmen who probe deeper into the causes of national depression in Ireland, and of these Mr. George Moore is not the least outspoken. In a dozen short stories, or rather studies, he dwells on the lack of vitality among the peasants of Catholic Ireland, the lack of all romance in their lives, the utter joylessness that is not to be explained away by economic causes. "In the country districts Irish life is one of stagnant melancholy; the only aspiration that comes into their lives is a religious one. It will be said that the Irish are too poor to pay for pleasure, but they are not too poor to spend fifteen millions a year upon religion."

Mr. Moore's contention is, that unless something is done to stop the constant drain of the population into the priesthood and the conventual life, the Catholic laity will become extinct in a generation. There are only two ideas in Catholic Ireland: emigration and the priesthood. At the opening

of the last century there were one hundred nuns in Irish convents; there are now twenty thousand. "Ireland," says Mr. Moore, "is emptying before the priests. In other countries Religion has managed to come to terms with Life." But in Ireland the priests sternly repress courtship among the peasants, and arrange marriages on any basis rather than that of inclination. Social gatherings are discouraged, dancing is denounced from the altar, and all relaxation is treated as sinful.

"I turned to the driver and asked if there was no courting in the country. 'There used to be courting,' he said, 'but now it is not the custom of the country any longer.' 'How do you make up your marriages?' 'The marriages are made by the parents, and I've often seen it that the young couple did not see each other until the evening before the wedding—and sometimes not until the very morning of the wedding. Many a marriage I've seen broken off for half a sovereign.'"

Elsewhere Mr. Moore writes:

"The sexes mingle freely everywhere in Western Europe: only in Ireland and Turkey is there any attempt made to separate them."

The possibility of a Celtic Renaissance through a revival of the language is rejected by more than one character in these stories; for the priests, peasants, and reformers whose lives the writer paints with grim realism, are introduced to discuss Mr. Moore's theses, and the whole is frankly written with a purpose. Ireland sadly needs a Dickens, a humorist "with lights of tragedy in his laughter," to expose the social weaknesses with which no Land Bill can reckon. But Mr. Moore is hardly fitted for the part. He is Mr. Meredith's typical "agelast," and his pages reflect no ray of humor. They leave the reader oppressed with the hopelessness of a country in which a majority of the peasant proprietors believe that an offended priest can turn them into rabbits, while they are taught by an all-powerful church that "we are here, not to make life successful and triumphant, but to gain heaven" (p. 215).

The adventures of 'Darby O'Gill' are conceived in quite another vein. Here we have the traditional Irish fairy tale, in which even the banshee is pressed into the service of comedy, where every peasant is jovial, and every priest cracks jokes with his parishioners. These slight stories have no aim, and illustrate nothing but the amusing element in superstition; the seamy side is ignored, and the dialect is written with much spirit and correctness.

Mr. Wasson is advertised as "taking rank as one of the best writers of New England salt-water sketches," which reminds us of the man who prided himself on being the second authority in England on gray shirtings. His stories have appeared in the monthly magazines "in real dialect," and those who can read them doubtless find them amusing. The book is full of strange oaths, such as "Godfrey Mighty" and "gracious evers," and we confess to an inability to appreciate this sort of lingo: "'Twas a dod-blowed wonder the tar wa'n't every mite squat outen me, but someways this 'ere foot made out to take the heft on't, and ole Dr. Roundturn he turned to and trimmed them toes down slick's a whistle." There is a good deal of humor in these sketches, which reek of tar and brine and oilskins; but, for the ordinary reader,

the effort of quarrying for it will probably prove too arduous.

The seasoned reader is suspicious of volumes of stories grouped round a central common feature. Like the book of 'Essays on Cats in Furnaces,' their "violent birth" too often ends in "poor validity." True, a collection of stories about middle-aged love affairs carries, at first glance, a prettily autumnal idea made up of sunsets and Indian summers and Michaelmas daisies. But reading only brings back distrust of the scheme. The stories are too palpably engineered into these boundaries. The course of true love may run smooth, it may run rough, but it runs, and the moment it is diked and ditched by the author's self-prescribed limitations, the effect on the reader who has small interest in seeing what may be done under hampering conditions, is stiff and stiffening. Yet the plan, if infelicitous, is not hopeless. It is in the carrying out as Miss Daskam has carried it out that the trouble lies. To counteract the autumnal ages of all the contracting parties, there is an averaging spring-lamb of sentiment that is mawkishly soft to the touch. The incidents are laboriously coaxed together in behalf of the middle-aged idea, and are not relieved by the frequent humorous passages, which in their turn seem foolishness in the twilight of belated romance. Having accepted the inevitable in the way of silver-flecked locks and the advantages of tiny wrinkles, the reader finds it disconcerting to come suddenly upon an epigram like "Better fifty years of poker than a cycle of croquet." The story which best holds the balance between matter and manner, humor and sentiment, is "Julia the Apostate." Leaning to humor's side, it becomes for that very reason the more effective romantically.

'Harry Revel' begins in a foundling hospital in Plymouth, and proceeds through chimney-sweep circles, via murder and innocence suspected, to smugglers' haunts on the Cornish coast, to military episodes in the Peninsular war, and thence northward to the place of beginning. It is a refreshingly told tale; not only a rattling one, but vocal with fuller harmonies than those of rattles. The hackneyed might so easily have prevailed, and it is never even present. The foundling's career is unrolled to the reader without rubbing the well-nigh raw spots of foundlings' lives as told in fiction. The eccentric folk who largely make Harry Revel's world fit into it without reducing it to absurdity. The salt roughness of Cornwall is no breeder of daintiness, and here and there manners run a trifle rude. But it is a good, snapping story in a vein of original saying and doing. As an instance stands the portrait of Miss Plinlimmon, the Matron, who did not maltreat the foundlings, whose heart was kind, whose aspirations to the poetic and literary life found vent in "occasional verses" sublimely true to would-be poetic achievement. We quote one among several gems:

"Wounded here, you were shattered
In the ankle—do not start!
Much, much more it would have mattered
In the neighborhood of the heart.
The bullet sped comparatively wide,
And he survives to be Old England's pride."

Les Héros de Roman. By Boileau. Edited with introduction and notes by Thomas

Frederick Crane, Professor of the Romance Languages in Cornell University. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1902.

This dialogue is not by any means the best known, nor, perhaps the best, of Boileau's writings. Critics give it merely a passing mention; some editions do not contain it, and this is the first time it has ever been published separately, even in French. 'Les Héros de Roman,' however, is far from being insignificant. Boileau declared it "the least frivolous" of his works. In fact, it is a parody and a "take-off" on the fiction of the day, written after the fashion of Lucian. The scene is laid in the nether world, and the dead heroes of Rome and Greece are the principal characters. That is what makes it an interesting and entertaining document of seventeenth-century literature. It is Boileau's protest against the absurdities of those long-drawn-out novels, in ten volumes, of D'Urfé, La Calprenède and Mlle. de Scudéry, which enjoyed such enormous vogue between 1620 and 1660. Boileau, like everybody else, had read them, and admired them, when he was in that early stage of dime-novel reading through which we all pass, and in which some always remain. But when he grew older, his rugged common sense began to be shocked by that artificial and childish literature in which shepherds were made to talk like *précieuses*, and captains of ancient times were shown indulging in sentimental and foolish *verbiage d'amour*, drawing maps of the "pays de Tendre," and busying themselves with the games of "questions" and "enigmas," that were the fashion of the drawing-rooms of the day. He then composed, in 1665, this dialogue, which he used to recite, with great success, to his friends, publishing it only after the death of Mlle. de Scudéry, and when many spurious editions had made it known to the public.

It may well be that 'Les Héros de Roman' does not possess the most delicate kind of wit, as M. Brunetière has it; but all will agree that it is an amusing, wholesome satire, which every student of that special side of French literature must and will enjoy. Accordingly, the edition that Professor Crane has brought out with such painstaking care and marked success is most welcome. Hardly any objections can be made to this excellent work, except, perhaps, that there is too much of it. The book is no longer an edition of Boileau with an introduction and notes. It is an exhaustive essay on Boileau, on French fiction and society in the seventeenth century, followed by a short appendix made up of Boileau's dialogue. The introduction covers 161 pages, while the dialogue occupies only 64. Moreover, there have been added to it some very important documents, such as the reproduction of one of the earlier versions of the dialogue, published in 1688, by friends who had heard Boileau recite it; some characteristic passages from the novels to which reference has been made; and, best of all, a facsimile of the famous *Carte de Tendre*.

The long introduction, full of interesting information and amusing quotations, makes excellent reading, and is as complete and up-to-date as the most exacting scholar would care to have it. Perhaps the author has spent too much time in conveying an idea of the plot of some of those novels

which to-day seem so dull that even a German writer, he tells us, gave one of them up in despair. As to the notes, which are all at the bottom of the page (one more precedent for which we must be grateful), they are very satisfactory as far as they go, but it seems to us that the editor has been too sparing of them. Some notes to guard students against obsolete expressions would not come amiss. Thus, in the following sentence: "Assurément ils n'ont pas osé lui toucher" (page 182), it was indispensable to note that the use of *lui* not merely is obsolete, but would now be ungrammatical. The same is true of "Je croyais que ce fut du bas-breton" (p. 218). The expression "faire voir du pays" (p. 192) cannot be explained by any of Littré's definitions, quoted in the note, but must be taken as a jocular reference to the love which Clélie will be able to display, thanks to her familiarity with the *Carte de Tendre*.

The book, in both type and form, is excellently got up. The publishers deserve their share of praise for having given such care to a work which lays no claim to a commercial success, but will, like the former works of the same author, remain a lasting credit to American scholarship.

Geschichte von Sul und Schumul, unbekannte Erzählung aus Tausend und eine Nacht. Nach dem Tübinger Unikum herausgegeben von Dr. C. F. Seybold. Leipzig: Spirgatis. 1902. Pp. xviii, 104.

This is probably the most important communication bearing on the 'Thousand and One Nights' since Zotenberg's edition of 'Aladdin' appeared. The MS. from which the present text is printed is one in a collection made by Wetzstein at Damascus, and bought from him for the Tübingen University in 1864. There it has lain unnoticed ever since, a proof, if any were needed, that the great European libraries contain treasures of which no one dreams. Further, according to Professor Seybold, this MS. is the oldest yet found, older even than that of Galland, and dates, at latest, from the fourteenth century. What precise grounds, other than palæographical, exist for this dating he does not explain. The MS. is singular, also, in the care with which it has been written. Although by no means in classical Arabic, it has been vowelised throughout with an elaboration given usually only to Qur'ans and poetry. The vowelising, too, though aping classicality, follows, in the page of facsimile at least, the colloquial consonantal spelling. Altogether, the problem presented even by the MS. is an interesting and complicated one.

As for the story, at the beginning a number of leaves have been lost, and we are plunged into the middle of the action. There are also some other gaps, but nothing which obscures the main outline. That is simplicity itself—the adventures of Sul in search of Shumul, who has been carried off by the Jinn on the eve of her marriage to him; but it involves some episodes of marked originality. Thus, it would be hard to parallel elsewhere in any collection of the 'Nights' Sul's adventures in the desert in connection with the stolen horse: they are purely Bedawi in type, and might have come from 'Antara' or the 'Bani Hilal.' Sul's intimate relationship with monks and the generally easy intercourse between Muslims and Christians is also strange to

the 'Nights,' except, perhaps, in the very different story of Masrur and Zain al-mawasif. This is so marked as to furnish a possible dating-point. The conditions are that Egypt and Syria must have been under one government, and that this government must have been most tolerant, even to the point of permitting Muslims to embrace Christianity.

Again, there is here a bit of hypnotism not to be precisely paralleled in the 'Nights.' The passage is interesting, and may be translated thus:

"And when it was the second day, he [a certain king of enchanters] had Sul brought into his presence and said to him, 'I have determined now to make use of the magic mirror [*darb al-mandal*]; Lane, 'Modern Egyptians,' chap. xiii., and thou shalt behold in it of marvels that in which the understandings are bewildered.' So he took Sul by the hand and brought him to a pool of water and made him sit beside the pool. Then the king had a censer of brass brought, on which were talismans and figures, and he had a rod of bamboo in his hand. . . . Then he took the rod in his hand and threw frankincense into the censer, and murmured, and moved his lips and struck the pool with the rod. And the water began to boil and bubble and roar and rumble like rolling thunder, and Sul was confused and he fainted, and sleep seized him and he slept before the king. Then the king stretched out his hand and aroused him, and Sul looked on the place where he was, and lo! it was the abode of his father and his uncle and his folk and his people, and he looked upon his tent and upon the tent of Shumul, the daughter of his uncle, and upon their cattle pasturing, and he fell fainting."

The points of likeness with other stories are not so easy to trace. There is here, as in the story of Tuhfat al-qulub in the Breslau text, a good-natured, almost comic, Iblis. The general scheme of the supernatural reminds most closely of the stories of 'Judar of Cairo' and 'Ali and Zahir of Damascus' which Weil translated from the Gotha MS. The description of Damascus and the wanderings in Syria have points of contact with the story of Attaf, especially as it is given in the Cotheal MS. But the originality of this story in plot and in details is more striking than any resemblances.

The question remains as to its place in the structure of the 'Nights.' That it, for example, ever formed part of any extended collection is not clear. Only a certain number of Nights are indicated at the beginning, and these are not numbered. The formula runs only, "the next night"; otherwise the tale is in the mouth of a reciter, *gala-r-ravi*, "The rawi said." Was it, then, a custom to take a story which had never been incorporated in any recension of the 'Nights,' and which there was no intention of so incorporating, and give it a certain standing or suggest its nature by adding to it some of the characteristic formulas of that collection? This hypothesis appears possible, but it would have been well if Professor Seybold had entered in his preface upon the whole subject with greater detail. The text is admirably edited, but his introduction is much too fragmentary.

Hombres y Glorias de América. Por Enrique Piñeyro. Paris: Garnier Frères. 1903.

We have read every word of this little book, attracted not more by its contents

than by the spirit of the author, which breathes from the grave, humane effigy that serves as frontispiece. The smaller half consists of a rapid portrayal of the conflict between freedom and slavery in the United States during the decade before the civil war. It is marked by resort to the best authorities, and by a clear personal adherence to the winning cause, with no apologies for the crime of slaveholding; yet also by independence and candor, as may be seen in Señor Piñeyro's treatment of Sumner and Lincoln and John Brown, of Buchanan and Taney. The point of view is the struggle for the control of the Senate, on which the pro-slavery ascendancy acquired under the Constitution depended. We have found scarcely anything to criticise, unless it be a certain failure to portray the evolution of Douglas and to make his later position with reference to slavery in the Territories plain. With the abolitionists proper we have here only incidentally to do. They are characterized (on p. 84) as "el grupo de fanáticos sublimes que consagran su vida, sin soñar en premio ni beneficio personal, á la realización de remotos elevados ideales." It is erroneously surmised on page 47 that few read 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' nowadays; quite the contrary is true, and no such reason was alleged for the recent decision to drop the work from the New York city school library lists. Moreover, the story has held the stage uninterruptedly for half a century.

The great controversy is considered anew in a subsequent very judicious review of Morse's 'Life of Lincoln.' Motley's Letters afford another leading topic. We get a glimpse of Theodore Parker and Mrs. Julia Ward Howe in Cuba in the loving and extended portrayal of the great Cuban educator, José de la Luz y Caballero, founder of the college El Salvador; and Ticknor is praised for his discernment and scholarship in the exposure of the fraudulent 'Centón Epistolario' of Don Antonio Vera y Zúñiga. Full of interest also are the critical chapters devoted to the Argentinian patriot, General José de San Martín; the Venezuelan codifier, grammarian, poet, translator of Victor Hugo, master of the Castilian tongue, who found the sphere of his greatest usefulness and honor in Chile, Andrés Bello; and to the Cuban Tyrtæus, Heredia, who is here vindicated against the disparagement of Menéndez y Pelayo. Finally, a review of Mariéjol's 'Pierre Martyr d'Anghera' offers an opportunity to delineate this "reporter" of things American in the sixteenth century.

The fame of not one of the worthies enumerated above as flourishing in the nineteenth century, can be said to have reached this continent except among students of history, and for this reason if for no other we could wish a wide circulation of these essays of Señor Piñeyro's among those who have command of the Spanish. It will be long, we fear, before our ignorant chauvinism (rekindled by imperialistic folly) can become aware of the greatness and purity of the "hombres de América" who have shaped the fortunes of the vast continent about to be severed from ours by the international waterway. Any one who knows what are the true glories of both Americas, will feel it a privilege to reflect upon them with the aid of so enlightened a guide as our author, accustomed (to use his own phrase applied in an-

other connection) "mirar las cosas con inalterable serenidad."

Down the Orinoco in a Canoe. By Perez Triana. With an introduction by R. B. Cunningham Graham. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1903.

"Where in thunder is Bogoté?" asked an American Secretary of State, after conferring the appointment of Vice-Consul at Bogotá upon an American citizen whose ambition it was to represent his country at the capital of the South American Republic of Colombia. Mr. Cunningham Graham, who stands as literary sponsor for Señor Triana's booklet, tells us, in a brightly written preface, that Bogotá to-day is "without doubt the greatest literary centre south of Panama"; and that "in Bogotá more serious literary work is done during a month than in the rest of the republics in a year." It is, he says, "in a way a kind of Chibcha Athens." So the literary lights of Lima, Caracas, Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Ayres, and Santiago—to say nothing of those of Georgetown, British Guiana—must pale their ineffectual fires before the brilliancy of the capital of a state which beats even Venezuela in the frequency of its bloody revolutions. In a fit of sweet reasonableness, Mr. Cunningham Graham admits the soft impeachment of his generation, that he is himself eccentric, and, judging from the book before us, we cannot but think his affectation about Bogotá somewhat peculiar.

'Down the Orinoco in a Canoe' is an unsatisfying and disappointing performance. The title is altogether misleading, for there is very little about the Orinoco in these pages. In fact, in chapter xix., the writer candidly admits that he brings "no new or useful contribution from a scientific point of view." To make amends, he proceeds to give (p. 233) information about the Orinoco taken from a paper by Col. George Earl Church, which was published in the *Geographical Journal* for April, 1901. There is more about the Meta, a tributary of the Orinoco, than about the Orinoco; but all that was worth saying about both rivers might have been told in a short magazine article. Fleeing from one of the ever-re-

curring revolutions that afflict the republic of Colombia, Mr. Triana, who is son of a former President of that highly polished state, thought it would be safer for him to take flight by a sort of back door to his native land, instead of going to Panama or Colon. He hurried across country till he struck the River Tua, by which he reached the Meta in four days. After several days' journey on the Meta, he struck the Orinoco two days after leaving Santa Catalina. Some part of the journeying on this great river was done, not in a canoe, but in "a one-masted schooner," presumably a sloop. At Bolivar a steamer was taken as far as the British island of Trinidad. A few natives and some alligators were seen; but story there is none to tell. Mr. Triana is evidently an educated gentleman who is a bit of a philosopher, but his book is a mere pot-boiler that will hardly add to the literary fame of Bogotá.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Agnus, Orme. Sarah Tuldon. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Alice Freeman Palmer. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
An English Garner: (1) Social England Illustrated: A Collection of XVIIIth Century Tracts, with an Introduction by Andrew Lang; (2) Critical Essays and Literary Fragments, with an Introduction by J. C. Collins. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.
Beach, H. P. A Geography and Atlas of Protestant Missions. 2 vols. and plates. Student Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions.
Beazley, C. R. Voyages and Travels, mainly during the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.
Berens, L. H. Toward the Light. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. \$1.
Blair, Emma H., Robertson, J. A. and Bourne, E. G. The Philippine Islands. Vol. III. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Breckinridge, S. P. Legal Tender. Chicago: University Press.
Bridgman, J. C. Happenings in Our Home. Boston: J. O. Bridgman; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$2.50.
British Standard Sections. Issued by the Engineering Standards Committee. D. Van Nostrand Co. \$1.00.
Buck, Winifred. Boys' Self-Governing Clubs. Macmillan.
Byron, Lord. Works. Vol. VI. Edited by E. H. Coleridge. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. \$2.
Campion, Thomas. The Muses' Library: Songs and Masques. Edited by A. H. Bullen. London; A. H. Bullen; New York: Scribners. \$1.75.
Chapman, J. W. Present-Day Evangelism. Baker & Taylor Co. 60 cents.
Clay, Felix. Modern School Buildings, Elementary and Secondary. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. \$10.
Cornaro, Louis. The Art of Living Long. Milwaukee: W. F. Butler.
Curtis, W. E. The True Abraham Lincoln. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. \$2.
Dant, H. Archbishop Temple. London: Walter Scott Publishing Company; New York: Scribners. \$1.50.

Davis, A. M. The Confession of John Chandler's Estate. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3.
Dickens, Charles. Poems and Verses. Edited by F. G. Kitton. Harpers.
Dickens, C. (1) The Life and Adventures of Nicholas Nickleby; (2) American Notes; (3) The Old Curiosity Shop. The Fireside Dickens. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Henry Frowde.
Dillon, J. F. John Marshall: Life, Character, and Judicial Services. 3 vols. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. \$9.
Dobell, Bertram. Sidelines on Charles Lamb. London: The Author; New York: Scribners. \$2.
Dopp, Katharine E. The Place of Industries in Elementary Education. Chicago: University Press.
Dunn, Archibald. The Bridge Book: Practical Talks About Bridge. London: George Routledge & Sons; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.
Fink, W. W. Echoes from Erin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.
Friedman, I. K. The Autobiography of a Beggar. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Gayley, C. M. Representative English Comedies. Macmillan. \$1.50.
Gilman, D. C., Peck, H. T., and Colby, F. M. The New International Encyclopedia. Vol. VII. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Goring, Maud. With the Trees. Baker & Taylor Co.
Guy, A. E. Experiments on the Flexure of Beams. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. \$1.25.
Hall, A. D. The Soil: An Introduction to the Scientific Study of the Growth of Crops. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.
Hardy, A. S. His Daughter First. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
Harte, Bret. Trent's Trust. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.
Hennik, Florence. Contrasts. John Lane.
Henshall, J. A. Bass, Pike, Perch, and Others. (The American Sportsman's Library.) Macmillan. \$2.
Hodder, Alfred. A Fight for the City. Macmillan.
Hoffman, F. S. Psychology and Common Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.30.
Holls, F. W. Correspondence between Ralph Waldo Emerson and Herman Grimm. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
Holroyd, Charles. Michael Angelo Buonarroti. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Scribners. \$2.
Huart, Clément. Littérature Arabe. Paris: Armand Collin. 5 fr.
Hubbard, G. H. Spiritual Power at Work. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.
Hundert Meister der Gegenwart. Parts 5, 6, and 7. Leipzig: E. A. Seemann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 3 marks each.
Hunter, Marjorie. A Memoir of Robert M. T. Hunter. Washington: Neale Pub. Co. \$2.
Is it Shakespeare? By a Cambridge Graduate. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$4.
La Tour, Landry, Chevalier Geoffrey de. The Booke of Thesegements and Techynge that the Knight of the Towre Made to his Daughters. Newnes; New York: Scribners. \$3.
Lajard, Léon. L'Égypte. G. C. E. Autobiography and Letters. Edited by W. N. Bruce and Arthur Otway. 2 vols. Scribners. \$7.50.
Long, W. F. Wood Folk at School. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Melandri, Achille. La Fille Du Braconnier. Paris: Armand Collin. 3 fr. 50.
Merriam, Mansfield. Treatise on Hydraulics. New ed. John Wiley & Sons. \$5.
Military Minutes of the Council of Appointment of the State of New York, 1783-1821. Edited by Hugh Hastings. 3 vols. and index. Albany: Published by the State of New York.
Newton, Emma M. The Veil of Solana. Frank F. Lovell Book Co. \$1.25.
Strong, C. A. Why the Mind Has a Body. Macmillan. \$2.50.
Swift, F. R. Florida Fancies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.
Webster, W. C. A General History of Commerce. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.40.
Worsford, W. B. The Principles of Criticism. New ed. London: George Allen; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.12.

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